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AFGHANISTAN.

THE alarming rumours which were circulated at the close of last week in reference to Afghan matters were fortunately proved to be false or exaggerated early in the present week. No serious impediment has interfered with General ROBERTS's advance, and that officer, after a march almost unparalleled in these days of elaborate impedimenta and somewhat too careful provision for comfort and luxury, reached Candahar on Tuesday. No confirmation whatever of the reported disturbances at Cabul has come from any quarter, and the mutiny of the Khan of KHELAT's troops was, it seems, confined to an insignificant number of men. Matters indeed have emerged pretty completely from the state of rumour in which they were for the most part while General ROBERTS was marching through no man's land. The invading forces and the relieving expedition are now face to face. General PRIMEOSE and General ROBERTS have effected their junction, and every hour, almost every moment, may bring us the news of the decisive battle or of a retreat on the part of AYOUN, which would be not indeed equally decisive, but conclusive at any rate of the present situation. The negotiations spoken of are not likely to come to much, as General ROBERTS has rightly insisted on a surrender at discretion. The Afghan Prince is very strongly posted, and one of the latest of the many fluctuating accounts of his force gives him a formidable army of more than twenty thousand men. General ROBERTS can probably dispose for purposes of attack of not much more than two-thirds of the number. But all, save a very small fraction of these troops, are of the very best quality, able beyond all doubt to give a good account of an Afghan force not merely twice but thrice or four times their strength. The third General who should have completed General ROBERTS's force to a still more formidable total is indeed absent. General PHAYRE has not even yet ended his six weeks' struggle with the difficulties of his route and the badness of the arrangements made for his journey. He too, it is thought, will have to fight, perhaps has already fought, his way through some native opposition. It has been confidently asserted that General ROBERTS will not wait for him, but will attack at once. This must probably depend on circumstances, of which no one not on the spot can judge. At a distance it certainly seems as if the attack could not be made too soon, for reasons which a little consideration will make obvious.

It is now certain that AYOUN has been joined by ABDUL RAHMAN's chief rival, the boy MUSA KHAN, and by most of the malcontent chiefs who were wont to rendezvous at Ghuznee, with the exception of MUSHK-I-ALUM and MAHOMET JAN. The former would appear to have loyally espoused ABDUL RAHMAN's cause, of the latter nothing has been heard of late. This junction indicates beyond a doubt that AYOUN has been accepted as the champion, if not the representative, of the YAKOUB party, and this in its turn makes the reports which continue to be spread of an understanding between ABDUL RAHMAN and AYOUN almost incredible. But, on the other hand, it makes it not improbable that AYOUN, instead of giving battle to General ROBERTS, will attempt to slip past him and march for Cabul. There is no doubt at all that he would in that case receive large accessions from the warlike tribes of the centre, and although some of his present troops might be unwilling to fight against the AMEER,

there would probably be quite sufficient left for the purpose. Such conduct on his part has for some time been recognized as constituting the great difficulty of the situation. So long as General ROBERTS was at a certain distance from Candahar, he had it in his power to checkmate any such course on AYOUN's part by a rapid flank movement into the Valley of the Arghandab. It is to be feared that, since he has been obliged to march on the city by General PHAYRE's failure to keep tryst, he has lost this power. Now it need hardly be said that it would be particularly awkward for the present Government if AYOUN were to execute this plan. Their retirement from Cabul would then be cast up against them with much greater force than is now the case, and they would have to define at once and strictly their relations with ABDUL RAHMAN. Now this is exactly what, to all appearance, they are desperately anxious not to do. "Take Cabul, and let us hear no more about you," may be said to be, in few words, the language of Lord HARTINGTON to the new AMEER. The worst of it is that we are likely, for a considerable time to come, to go on hearing of Afghanistan. Ostrich policies never pay well, and the resolution of the GLADSTONE Government now, as of old, to try and ignore the existence of the neighbour of India is likely to bear the same fruit in the future that it has borne in the past. But, for the present, a decisive victory at Baba Wali—especially if it were followed by the capture or surrender of AYOUN and of MUSA—would be a godsend to the Government, while it is so decidedly needed to restore the credit of the Indian army, that every Englishman, whatever his politics, must be as anxious for it as any member of the Government can be. With the two prominent leaders, or puppets, of the opposition to the present AMEER comfortably interned somewhere in India, ABDUL RAHMAN would have time and opportunity to settle himself on his throne, and Afghanistan would cease to trouble England for exactly so long a time and no longer as it might suit General KAUFMANN to keep it in a state of quiescence. Now, if it had not been for General PHAYRE's being behind time, General ROBERTS might almost have made certain of the battle which, as it is, it is at AYOUN's option to give or to refuse. To the Quetta force might have been left the duty of marching straight to Candahar and effecting a junction with General PRIMEOSE, while ROBERTS himself could have taken a cast westwards, and have definitely placed himself between AYOUN and all possible routes to Cabul. There would still have been left the possibility of a retreat to Herat; but this, though troublesome enough, would not have been from the political point of view half so troublesome as the possible advance on Cabul.

Not merely from this consideration, but with regard to the future welfare of our Indian Empire, we cannot but think it of the utmost importance that, as soon as we have settled accounts with AYOUN, a full and searching investigation should be made by the military authorities at home into the conduct of the Candahar division, and that portion of the Bombay army supporting it during the last two or three months, indeed ever since General STEWART began his march to Ghuznee. With the utmost trouble Sir H. DRUMMOND WOLFF has at last extracted some information from the Government as to the VICEROY's part in this matter. But this is only a part. When the first rumours were heard of an advance of AYOUN from Herat, there was not the slightest reason to suspect the possibility of disaster.

Our forces in Southern Afghanistan rested, it is true, on a distant base, but their communication with the base was apparently easy and certain. At one end of the line was Candahar, with a force equal, if not superior, in number to that with which many of our greatest Indian victories have been secured. To the south the line to Quetta was held by parties or troops échelonné along it, and at Quetta a considerable force was supposed to be massing to support that at Candahar, and reinforce it if necessary. Behind Quetta a stretch of somewhat difficult country lay; but the sovereign of this country was an assured friend. As soon as the mountains were crossed the head of a railway was reached, communicating with the Indus, and then, by easy communication, both land and water, with Kurrachee and Bombay itself. The authorities who presided over the different portions of this chain had ample warning of the approach of the invaders. Yet from the very moment that AYUB arrived within striking distance everything has been blunder, confusion, and failure. A general was sent out to bear the brunt of the attack who is said (and we have not seen it denied) never to have seen any active service whatever. When half, and more than half, the forces sent with him mutinied and joined the enemy, the plan was not changed, nor were reinforcements sent. The information department seems to have been constantly behind the time, and when the siege of Candahar was actually formed, the only important movement attempted—the sortie of the 16th—was repulsed with loss. But these things are as nothing compared with the failure of the supports. The very best arrangements will not ensure us against disasters arising from individual incompetency. But good arrangements are absolutely proof against such failure as that which has, as we have seen, disconcerted General ROBERTS'S plan, and reduced him to the alternative of wasting valuable time or of fighting with diminished forces and in a position which leaves the enemy the option of evasion. Considering the number of troops available between Bombay and Chaman, the means of transport at their disposal, the distances to be covered, and the circumstances of the country, a fortnight might have been required to place a respectable force in marching order at Chaman. Even a fortnight seems somewhat long when we remember how much may happen in that time. The facts are, that six weeks have not sufficed. Now, if there is one thing upon which the safety of our Indian Empire depends, it is the mobility of our troops. Considerable as is the garrison we maintain there, the enormous space it has to cover can only be defended successfully by a force which can be mobilized at once. We have spent vast sums on railways; and the outlay on more perishable means of transport, when they are required, is proverbially lavish. What can be done when there is heart in the work and when the means are in working order is shown by General ROBERTS'S march at the shortest notice, with ten thousand men of all arms, over a hundred and thirty-six miles of difficult country in eight days, and by General GOUGH'S march, with two cavalry regiments, of thirty-four miles in a single day. With this has to be contrasted the fact that General PHAYRE, acting on a line established for the support of General PRIMROSE, resting on the capital of a Presidency at one end and furnished for all but a small part of the way with steam and railway communication, has been unable in six weeks to take a relieving army to the walls of Candahar.

IRELAND.

MR. FORSTER'S latest version of his own intentions is not altogether satisfactory. He persists in substituting for law his own notions of justice. He declares that, if the landowners exercise their rights so as to incur his disapproval, he will personally decline to enforce the law. In other words, he will tender his resignation to his colleagues unless they concur with him in promoting a new Disturbance Bill. The probable result would be the retirement of the moderate members of the Cabinet, and an increase of the influence which is at present exercised by Mr. GLADSTONE, Mr. BRIGHT, Mr. CHAMBERLAIN, and, with less danger to existing institutions, by Mr. FORSTER himself. Mr. PARNELL, in a few epigrammatic words, summed up the Irish question. If, he said, the Constabulary were abolished, there would be no need for a change in the Land-law. An exactly similar proposal was in fabulous times made by the

wolves when they suggested that the sheep-dogs should be withdrawn from the fold. The Land League would make and execute their own laws but for the force which is at the disposal of more legitimate authorities. Parliament is happily about to disperse; but the Irish agitation proceeds with constantly augmenting violence; and the Government takes no effectual measures for the protection of life and property. The demagogues who address seditious meetings no longer trouble themselves to accuse the landlords of oppression by the exaction of excessive rent or by inconsiderate eviction. The offence of the landowner is that he owns land which, in the popular judgment, ought to be transferred to the occupier. The itinerant orators are in truth much more consistent than Mr. FORSTER. He professes his determination not to protect or assist legal claims which he may by some arbitrary test determine to be unjust. The Land League resolves that rent is in itself unjust, though a few months ago its leaders pretended to advise the tenants to pay a fair rent instead of the stipulated amount. In spite of the warnings of the more rational members of the popular party, the demagogues decline to consider the question which would arise if the holdings of actual occupiers were converted by purchase or by force into freeholds. The majority of the population would still be landless; and there would be little or no demand for hired labour. The agitators constantly dwell on the invalidity of titles which date from the times of ELIZABETH or of CROMWELL, though in civilized countries a much shorter prescription is universally recognized; but even the impudence of a Land League disclaimer would scarcely suffice to maintain the proposition that the present holders are the heirs of the original owners of the land. Mr. BRIGHT'S scheme of purchasing farms with the aid of the State seems to attract little attention. The assumption by the Imperial Government of the character of universal landlord or mortgagee would be a chronic invitation to rebellion. When the change was effected no Irish Secretary, however devoted he might be to Liberal politics, could profess to distinguish between just and unjust demands for rent or interest.

By far the most novel, and not the least tenable, theory of Irish disorder has, in accordance with his well-known views, been promulgated by Mr. FROUDE. He attributes all Irish evils to anarchy resulting from a refusal on the part of England to deviate from traditions of law and liberty, which are, in Mr. FROUDE'S opinion, wholly inapplicable to the population of Ireland. He censures, with a plainness, which leaves nothing to be desired, the whole system of affecting to govern Ireland according to Irish ideas, and not with exclusive reference to Irish needs. The protection of legal rights and the punishment of crime are, in Mr. FROUDE'S judgment, far more indispensable than the pedantic maintenance of constitutional doctrines. He would prosecute leaders of sedition, rioters, and murderers with inexorable rigour; and, if juries refused to convict, he would transfer criminal jurisdiction to judges, and require the tribunals to do their duty. To Mr. FROUDE it seems not a light thing that Mr. BIGGAR should vindicate in the House of Commons the brutal and treacherous murder of Lord LEITRIM. He apparently suspects Mr. GLADSTONE of a deliberate intention to destroy or disturb the principle of property in land. He believes that Mr. GLADSTONE must have foreseen the rejection of the Disturbance Bill by the House of Lords, and that he must have intended the measure merely as a sanction of the revolutionary demand for the abolition of rent. It cannot be suspected that Mr. FROUDE is in this case influenced by political or personal prejudice. During the Bulgarian agitation, and throughout the Eastern crisis, Mr. GLADSTONE had no more zealous supporter than Mr. FROUDE. The demand for a reversal of the Irish policy of the present Government, and indeed of all modern Governments and Parliaments, may perhaps be injudicious, but it is undoubtedly sincere.

That the strongest Coercion Bill which could be devised would be desirable, if there were no other means of suppressing the anarchy which prevails in Ireland, seems to many politicians a truism. It might probably be not impossible to govern by methods less rigorous than CATOUC'S state of siege; but it is above all things necessary to govern. The orators and the newspaper writers who employ themselves in the encouragement of crime should be in the first instance sentenced and punished, though it might be impossible to reach their patrons and abettors in the House

of Commons. Every impediment should be offered to the acquisition and possession of arms by the disaffected classes; and, as Mr. FROUDE suggests, juries should be superseded or suspended if they fail to discharge their duties. Few modern measures have done so much to decrease the sufferings of Ireland as the Peace Preservation Acts, which have for two generations been persistently passed, enforced, relaxed, and ultimately repealed. It is not even an injury to the class which is most directly affected by Coercion Acts that it is restrained from crime. Mr. FOESTER has lately become aware that it may perhaps be necessary to demand powers for the preservation of life and property. It is unfortunate that he should have intimated as a probable condition of the discharge of a duty a refusal in cases which must be arbitrarily selected to enforce the law. It is true that no Peace Preservation Act would remedy the distress of Ireland, though it might incidentally tend to mitigate its effects; but no Government can put an end to poverty, while it is the first business of all Governments to prevent and punish crime. If it is possible by legislation to prevent the recurrence of distress, it is not at the expense of landlords that the peasantry ought to be relieved.

The main objection to Mr. FROUDE's arguments and proposals are that they are paradoxical, or, in other words, that they are opposed to popular opinion. It may be a grievous misfortune that Great Britain is inextricably linked to Ireland with the obligation either to make the country civilized and prosperous, or to suffer by its misgovernment. Free nations find it more difficult than absolute Governments to rule dependencies. As far as the colonies are concerned England has evaded the difficulty by renouncing the liability. Canada, Australia, and New Zealand manage their own affairs, and Ireland would be welcome to Home Rule if it was in another hemisphere. The people of the United States have, with much sagacity, refused to encumber themselves with foreign possessions in which their institutions would not thrive, and which they have no machinery for administering as dependencies. The coloured population of the Southern States might have caused much trouble if they had not been practically deprived of the political power to which they are legally and constitutionally entitled. The States and Territories which have been founded in the West are, for the most, settled by emigrants from the older States, who take with them all the national customs and institutions. The Irish and English have never become homogeneous, though they have now for many years been governed by the same laws. Not even the experience of Irish members, which has extended from the time of O'CONNELL's tail and the POPE's Brass Band to the days of Mr. PARNELL and Mr. BIGGAR, has convinced the English people that it would be possible to withhold representative institutions with all the rights and liberties which they include from any portion of the United Kingdom. Mr. FROUDE's eloquent denunciations of the anomaly of regarding unequal things as equal might produce more effect if he could suggest any admissible alternative. In former times many experiments have been tried with uniform want of success. It would now be impossible to administer Ireland as a mere dependency. The growing strength of the English democracy would place an insurmountable impediment in the way of any attempt of the kind. The extreme Liberal party will never consent to deprive itself of the aid of allies who will always be ready to support revolutionary measures. It is true that an extension of the Irish borough franchise is, as Mr. FROUDE observes, a gift of a stone instead of bread; but the establishment of household suffrage in the English and Scotch counties will be a far more mischievous and dangerous measure. Mr. FROUDE's vigorous protests are like the prophecies of CASSANDRA, of which even the few who believe them understand that they will fail to reach the popular ear until they are accomplished.

THE EGYPTIAN DAIRA.

THE terms of the law of Egyptian liquidation are now known in detail, and it may be said, to the credit of the Commission, that not only is the scheme contained in the law bold and practical, but great attention has been paid to points that may at first seem trifling, and the drafting is a model of clearness and conciseness. For

reasons mainly political the holders of the floating debt have been too well treated, and that is the only objection that can be made to the scheme in general. Of the treatment in detail by the Commission of the matters submitted to it no one can judge, except by taking some one portion of the decree and examining it. No portion, perhaps, is more convenient and instructive than that which deals with the Daira, and it so happens that the Report of the Daira for this year has just been published, and thus every necessary material is furnished for an appreciation of the difficulties which the Commissioners had to encounter. The previous history of the Daira was briefly this. Vast estates belonging to the late Khedive formed the guarantee of a loan of nine millions sterling. The interest was fixed at five per cent.; and the estates, if well managed, produced on an average enough to pay this interest; but in years when the crop was poor or prices were low it was not sufficient, and the Khedive undertook to make up any deficiency out of his Civil List. The Khedive would not or could not fulfil his undertaking, and the payment of the coupons was only rendered possible by borrowing, although not to any serious extent. The holders of obligations were protected by a mortgage taken in the names of individuals, but there was no one with legal powers to represent the holders. Further, although the land itself was secured by mortgage, its produce was not. It was liable to be seized for the debts of the Daira; and, as the Daira was the estate of the Khedive, it was held that it was answerable for all the private debts of its owner. As a going concern it was perfectly solvent, but it was weighed down by a mass of debt, with which, as a going concern, it had nothing to do. Then, again, it had become uncertain whose property it was; for the Khedive, in the latter days of his reign, had under pressure made it over to the State; but the formalities of Mahomedan law had not been complied with, and it was probable that, if the holders of obligations had sought to enforce their rights, they would have had to sue a proprietor who was in exile, or, if he died, his family or his heirs. Lastly, the administration was in the hands of a nominee of the Khedive, subject to the supervision of an English and a French Controller, and over all was the Khedive himself, who was supposed to be specially interested in the management of his own estates, and to have special facilities for managing them. Sometimes the Khedive interfered with everything; sometimes he said he was tired of the Daira and would hear nothing of it. It was impossible that the property should be well managed under such a system. The administration was overshadowed by a vague, irresistible, intermittent intervention.

The Commissioners were constituted, or constituted themselves, as a legislative body. Whatever they chose to say was the law became the law. There was no knot they could not cut if they chose to cut it; and all the knots that the Daira presented to their notice they cut with a firm hand. They began with laying down that the property was the property of the State, and in a moment, without any further formality, it passed to the State. They then with a stroke of the pen got the Daira free from its burden of debts with which it had nothing to do. The produce of the estates cannot henceforth be seized for any debts except the real debts of the administration, and only for debts of this class, contracted since July 1877, when the new administration with its foreign Controllers began to work. Then come the pecuniary arrangements. A very large portion of the sums which the Daira had recently been called on to pay consisted of sums properly owed, not by it, but by the Government, and in reimbursement of these sums, and also in compensation for the extinction of the special guarantees given by the Khedive, the Government is ordered to pay out of the funds at the disposal of the Commissioners 450,000*l.*, subject to a deduction of the amount due from the Daira for taxes. If the estates yield enough to pay more than four per cent., the holders of obligations are to get the surplus up to five per cent.; but the Government in any case is to make up what may be necessary to pay four per cent. To prevent the guarantee being illusory, it is enacted that, if the Government fails to fulfil its obligations, the Daira is to pay no taxes on the lands not affected to the Unified Debt until it has thus recouped itself what the Government has failed to pay. No clause in the decree is more valuable to the bondholders than this, for it gives them, as

contrasted with a mere promise to pay, a means of ensuring payment the most efficacious that could be practically operative. Out of the 450,000*l.* a sum of 180,000*l.* is to be set apart as a reserve fund, and to this are to be added the amounts received from the revenue beyond what is necessary to pay five per cent. until the amount of 350,000*l.* is reached, after which point the surplus revenues are to be used in paying off the bonds at eighty per cent. of their nominal value. The primary object of this reserve fund is to ensure the payment of four per cent. interest, so that the bondholders have a double security for their interest in the guarantee of the Government, and in the provision of a reserve fund which, it may be observed, is from the outset exactly equal to the amount of one half-yearly coupon.

The difficulty under which the bondholders laboured in having no one to represent them legally is solved in the simplest manner. It is enacted that the English and French Controllers shall be their representatives, and the question how these Controllers are to be appointed is definitely decided by a provision that the Egyptian Government will accept the nomination of the respective Governments, or, if the other Government does not choose to nominate, will choose some one in the active or retired service of that Government. The system of administration is recast. There is still to be a native Director, but the Controllers are not only to supervise him, but are at liberty to determine any question of administration in regard to which they may think fit to interfere. Above this administrative body is a Council, of which the Director and the Controllers form part, but of which the Egyptian Minister of Finance, the English and French Controllers-General, are also members, and the Council will exercise in a methodical manner the powers of supreme but vague and occasional control formerly reserved to the Khedive. The scheme as a whole is at once fair and favourable to the Daira. It starts fresh and unencumbered. Its legal difficulties are swept away. The bondholders will be represented, and represented by persons who are the choice of the English and French Governments. The administration is simplified and strengthened, and is thrown to a very large degree into the hands of Europeans; and everything has been done to ensure the bondholders getting four per cent. But the bondholders must understand that they cannot reckon on getting more than four per cent. for some time. Not only may there be bad years, but for this year and next year the condition and prospects of the crops are such that more than four per cent. cannot be looked for. Farther the Daira has now to pay new taxes which themselves amount to one per cent. on the capital, so that a yield which formerly would have sufficed to pay five per cent. will now only suffice to pay four. And a new burden has been thrown on the Daira, as the Commissioners have enacted that the bonds of the Daira Khassa shall be incorporated in the general debt of the Daira. The Government undertakes to pay 34,000*l.* a year to meet the augmentation of the capital of the Daira debt; but it only gives a simple promise to pay, and the Daira will have to meet the interest, even if the Government does not pay. The simple fact is that the Daira bondholders were in a great mess, and have now got out of it, and may look for four per cent. with the hope of some day and occasionally getting a little more. That they have been extricated from embarrassment is, as is pointed out in the Report, in a large measure due to the energetic protection which Mr. GOSCHEN, ably and cordially aided by his French colleague M. JOUBERT, has given to their interests. It might be added, which, as the Report was drawn by Mr. MONEY, the English Controller, could not be stated in it, that they are also very largely indebted to the zeal, determination, and perseverance with which Mr. MONEY laboured in the practical conduct of their affairs until his connexion with the Daira was recently terminated by his appointment to a higher post in the sphere of Egyptian finance.

THE LAST BURIALS DIVISION.

LORD HARTINGTON was in merry pin at three o'clock in the morning of Wednesday, at which sane hour for delicate deliberation the House of Commons was finally disposing of a Bill on which momentous issues for the future of the Church of England depend. Full of anticipations of the Greenwich feast, even though white-

bait has passed away, the leader crowed over the Burials Bill as a measure of conciliation which would make mankind happy all round. One section of mankind has not much cause for self-gratulation at the shape which this triumph of the Liberal cause assumed, and that is the Liberal party itself, that great united party of freedom and loquacity. At the moment of the final success a rift as wide as that in the Roman Forum suddenly yawned, and no MARCUS CURTIUS was there to make the patriotic plunge into the abyss. The last division on the Burials Bill was not the irresistible advance of the serried ranks of progress over a demoralized and dispersed handful of reactionaries; but a victory achieved by the united forces of those Liberals who still desire to uphold the Church of England and of the Conservatives over an angry alliance of Liberationists, Freethinkers, and democrats who had banded together to humiliate and insult that Church.

The proceedings in Committee and upon the Report of the Burials Bill can best be considered together. Practically the motion urged by Mr. BRADLAUGH for disturbing, not only Sunday, but Christmas Day and Good Friday, which was beaten by so inadequate a majority on the first and so sufficient a one on the second occasion; as well as that in which Mr. ILLINGWORTH was thoroughly defeated, for removing the obligation for all services in churchyards to be Christian; and last, but not least, the resistance to the clergy relief clause, must be regarded as the successive battles of a campaign. Step by step the conspiracy which created and has kept alive the agitation of which this Bill is the result has, by their own imprudence, been courting defeat, not only calamitous to their particular cause, but menacing to the future harmony and efficiency of the Liberal party itself. While we were certain that the agitators' pietistic pretence would soon be thrown aside, we could not forecast that the drift of events would unmask the innermost intention of those who were the real promoters of the measure with a completeness and rapidity of which, in the hurry and confusion of a worn-out Session, they were themselves barely conscious. Up to and even during the second reading they were touchy and prodigal, with the honest exception of Mr. WOODALL, in protesting that the aggression was a question of simple burial not of property in the churchyard, of feelings and not of rights, and that, if only their conscientious principles should obtain recognition, they would go away and cease from troubling the Establishment. So matters stood when in the Committee the limitation was reached which gave precise and complete satisfaction to all the ostensible demands of the Nonconformist ministry and its obedient flocks. At this point it suited their Parliamentary leaders to find out that they had never been thinking of being buried as Christians, but as citizens, and that in demanding the use of the churchyards they were demanding a right which, as they formulated the claim, contradicted all the existing legal incidents attaching to those properties which they had hitherto pretended to respect. Hence the sweet accord of Calvinist, Atheist, and some Papists in a colourable repudiation of the word Christian—which really meant antagonism to the established rights of the Church of England. This daring policy simplified the action of the House of Commons. The plea of the discontented cave might be logical, but the attitude of the remaining House was practical. The practical men, whether they owned it or not, felt that the measure, in its mildest form, would be inexpressibly distasteful to the class to whom the State had to look for working it. Logic, on the other side, stood up before the country in the visible shapes of Mr. BRADLAUGH and Mr. LABOUCHERE, backed by the sweet gracefulness of Mr. COLLINGS, so it was not very astonishing that the House decided that between reducing the member for Northampton and Mr. ASHTON DILKE to the painful necessity of a silent burial, and of declining to force facilities upon the Jews, of which the Jews emphatically refused to take advantage, or of scandalizing that wide feeling which could be Christian without being Liberationist, it was wise to choose the former alternative, and despire the harmless imputation of inconsistency.

The HOME SECRETARY'S bounceable entrance on Saturday evening into the Committee just as it was closing its proceedings in a fit of almost unaccountable good humour is an incident which cannot lead to any direct political result. It was certainly an eccentric act on the part of a Cabinet Minister to knock over a colleague who was, although out of the Cabinet, conduct-

ing the business of the House in charge of an important Ministerial measure. The inevitable row which resulted was as sharp as it was sudden, and showed that even in this Parliament of delegates and of rebels something has been left of the old spirit of loyal independence. However, Lord HARTINGTON, clothed in the brief, if not little, authority of leader pending the sea-trip of the PRIME MINISTER, summarily repudiated his unruly colleague, and Sir WILLIAM HARCOURT did the best thing left to him to do by tendering his "Beg pardon, and won't do so again" with the frank confession that when he spoke he knew nothing of the question or of his colleagues' action. It was rumoured that some new members were converted to a belief of the HOME SECRETARY'S future docility. Anyhow, the Committee relapsed into the condition of limp boredom so eminently suited for the discussion of the all but last stage of a Bill which is intended to revolutionize the position of one of the estates of the realm. Yet the incident, so far as it affects the character of the Government and the relations of its members towards each other, cannot go to sleep. It is a revelation, which is the more startling because genuine and unpremeditated, of the way in which we are governed; and it is therefore for the nation to say how far it will repose its confidence in a Government which fails in securing harmony of opinion and unity of action even among its own members.

THE NAVAL DEMONSTRATION.

THE pressure on the Porte has within a few days become perceptibly closer. Lord GRANVILLE, with proper reticence, declined to state the instructions which have been given to Admiral SETMOUR; but he confirmed the statement that something is at last to be done. A squadron to which all the six Powers will have contributed one or more vessels is to assemble within reach of the disputed Albanian or Montenegrin territory. The invitation to the Powers to make use of the port of Ragusa is still more significant, as a proof that Austria, which acts in concert with Germany, has not withdrawn from the European alliance. The recent diplomatic communications have been definite and firm. It was perhaps impossible to avoid some delay in the cession of Dulcigno to Montenegro; but the limit of time which was imposed on the Porte has not been formally altered. At the same time, the Turkish proposal to reopen the Greek negotiations has been peremptorily rejected. The right of the Governments which assembled in Conference at Berlin to compel the surrender of a large territory by one nominally independent Government to another might be plausibly disputed; but, having made the demand, the Powers could not, without a confession both of injustice and of weakness, further prosecute the discussion. The Plenipotentiaries must be assumed to have known all the arguments which can be urged against their decision; and, in fact, they acted on the best professional advice, both in estimating the comparative numbers of the different sections of the population, and in according to either party, as far as the circumstances allowed, defensive military positions which were not equally convenient for purposes of aggression. It is not seriously disputed, except by the Government of the SULTAN, that the Greek population in the district to be transferred anxiously desires a change. It was impossible to draw a frontier line which should not leave a certain number of Mahometans to the south. Rightly or wrongly, the Powers have announced their decision; and it is improbable that they will reopen the controversy.

The naval demonstration, as it is called, is for the present confined to the object of enforcing submission to the provisions of the Berlin Treaty in favour of Montenegro. As there are to be no troops on board the ships, the mode in which coercion is to be applied still awaits explanation; but both Turks and Albanians will understand a display of material force better than diplomatic documents or official proclamations. It is doubtful whether the orders which have been issued from Constantinople are intended to be obeyed; and, even if the SULTAN and Ministers are in earnest, they will not receive credit for sincerity. The Albanians have probably learned that the SULTAN is personally afraid to offend them; and they have cultivated friendly intercourse with the officers who were ostensibly charged with the execution of his orders. The moral claim of Montenegro to territorial aggrandize-

ment is not appreciated by its neighbours. Prince NICHOLAS and his people are rewarded for being orthodox Christians, for hereditary enmity to Turkey, and especially for the diversion which they effected in favour of Russia during the late war. Mahometans and Catholics, whose sympathies are all on the side of Turkey, feel the sacrifice imposed upon them as an intolerable grievance; but the combined squadron will perhaps convince them that it is useless to argue against superior force. The SULTAN will probably be acquitted of readiness to abandon his subjects when the dictation of Europe is embodied in a visible form. It is not to be doubted that the different Governments have pledged themselves to ulterior action if their first practical measure proves to be as abortive as their verbal remonstrances. It is fortunate that there is no risk of maritime collision. The squadron will, for the present at least, not attempt to force the passage of the Dardanelles. Threats are sometimes rendered more effective by ambiguity and calculated mystery.

The technical distinction between the Greek and Montenegrin demands may be not unimportant, if any of the Powers decide to provide themselves with excuses for partial inaction. The demand for the cession of Dulcigno to Montenegro is founded on strict legal right, because it constitutes an agreed modification of the terms of a treaty to which both Turkey and the combined Powers were parties. The Congress of Berlin represented the ultimate authority by which international law is enacted or enforced. As far as the Congress modified the separate Treaty of San Stefano, it gave to the Porte some consideration for the territorial losses which were imposed by the Treaty of Berlin. The refusal of the Porte to comply with any of the conditions of the Treaty would be a lawful cause of war, and it, therefore, justifies less stringent modes of compulsion. The annexation of Epirus and Thessaly to Greece depends on an assertion of superior power and of paramount expediency rather than on any legal right. No cession was required by the Treaty of Berlin, though, in compliment to the French Minister, an informal recommendation was appended to the main instrument. It is, therefore, perhaps open to Germany or to France to decline a share in enforcing the surrender of territory to Greece; but great Powers can seldom tender barren advice or give extra-judicial decisions. The incidental declaration of the Congress might perhaps be explained away; but the unanimous determination of the late Conference must in some sense be binding on all the Governments. It may therefore be probably conjectured that the naval demonstration, if it produces the desired effect with reference to Dulcigno, will be continued or repeated to compel the cession of Epirus and Thessaly. If the means appear not altogether adequate to the desired end, it is not to be supposed that united Europe will allow itself to be finally baffled.

The English Ministers cannot excuse themselves for embarrassment or failure by any impediment offered to their policy by their opponents in or out of Parliament. Both Houses have deliberately abstained from discussing or criticizing the diplomatic and administrative measures of the Government. Lord SPRETHEDEN'S chronic curiosity and dissatisfaction have been confined to himself; and Lord GRANVILLE'S recent statement provoked neither criticism nor any request for further information. It is known that the English Government has taken the lead in all the recent transactions; but its conduct is so far justified by the acquiescence of the other Powers in its proposals; and its objects are generally approved. Even when steps are taken which seem to have a warlike tendency, provisional confidence is reposed in Mr. GLADSTONE'S devotion to peace. The country would not tolerate an unprovoked war with Turkey; but as long as the European concert is maintained there is no risk of actual hostilities. If sympathy for a hard-pressed Government and nation has visibly cooled, the SULTAN has himself to thank for the change. His obstinate rejection of the wise counsels which have been tendered through Sir HENRY LAYARD and Mr. GOSCHEN has apparently resulted as much from ill-will to England as from dislike of foreign interference and of administrative improvement. Notwithstanding the surprising declaration of the Turkish Chargé d'Affaires, it is certain that papers have been printed at the Imperial press for the express purpose of promoting dissension among the Mussulmans of India. There may be some excuse for the SULTAN'S

irritation; but his unfriendly conduct naturally provokes resentment. He would readily be forgiven if he would consult his own obvious interest. The Powers which demand unwelcome territorial cessions are indefatigable in contriving for the SULTAN modes of administration by which he might conciliate the loyalty of his remaining subjects. All the Governments have agreed on the reforms which ought to be introduced in Armenia; and the Commission appointed under the terms of the Treaty of Berlin to provide a scheme of administration for the European provinces has already completed its labours. Sir DRUMMOND WOLFF and his successor have taken a principal part in the deliberations of the Commission; and it is stated that Lord EDMOND FITZMAURICE has, with the impartiality which becomes a representative of England, expressly stipulated for the protection of the franchises and customs of the Albanian subjects of the Porte. There is too much reason to apprehend the sluggish resistance of the SULTAN'S Government to all improvement in Europe and in Asia; but it is possible that some beneficial changes may be effected with a conceivable tendency to future development. That Russia should concur with England and other Powers in insisting on constitutional government in Turkey is an anomaly which has already ceased to be surprising.

M. DE FREYCINET AND THE RELIGIOUS ORDERS.

THE dull season in France has been cheered with a new interest. When the vacation began it seemed as though there would be nothing about which to speculate until the reopening of the Chambers. The elections of the 1st of August promised to make things less exciting than ever. While the composition of the Councils-General remained in any sense Anti-Republican it was always possible to wonder whether the Senate or the Chamber of Deputies best represented France. Both were the offspring of universal suffrage, and any one who chose might argue that the less direct method by which the Senate was elected made it a more genuine, because less special, expression of the national wishes. The Councils-General savoured of the soil. The very fact that they had other functions to discharge besides that of returning the Senate ensured a larger amount of electoral interest, and formed a safeguard against the abstentions which so often vitiate the elections to the Chamber of Deputies viewed as an evidence of French feeling in the largest sense of the term. A deputy might be returned by a minority of political enthusiasts; but a Senator was, in fact, chosen by a body in the return of which the whole electorate had on many grounds a direct and strong interest. Since the 1st of August this source of interest has come to an end. It is useless to weigh these comparative probabilities any longer, because a term has been set to the state of things out of which they arose. The Senate will in future exhibit no sharp distinctions when compared with the Chamber of Deputies. The traditional moderation of an Upper Chamber may still influence its action to some extent; but the general attitude of its members in political controversy will be the same as that of the Chamber of Deputies. The complete success of the Republicans a month ago supplies a decisive answer to the eager predictions of the reactionary parties.

Upon this dead level of political interest M. DE FREYCINET descended the other day in the speech he made at Montauban. M. DE FREYCINET has shown himself in one important respect wiser than any other of his colleagues or opponents. They may keep a newspaper, he keeps a foreign correspondent. Nowhere are M. DE FREYCINET'S praises more eloquently sung than in the Paris Correspondence of the *Times*, and the importance of the Montauban speech was at once trumpeted to Europe in the columns of the great English journal. M. DE FREYCINET, it was pointed out, had read in the elections of the 1st of August the lesson they really had to convey. He saw that the Republic was safe so long as it continued moderate, and he was prepared to apply this knowledge to the case of the unauthorized religious orders. M. DE FREYCINET'S words certainly went far to justify this description of them. He excused the breaking up of the Jesuit establishments as a necessary concession to the feeling of the Chamber of Deputies, and hinted that the other unrecognized orders would be left free to conform

themselves, if they chose, to the provisions of a law regulating the right of association which would be introduced next Session. The Correspondent of the *Times* hinted that, in holding out this prospect, M. DE FREYCINET had not spoken without book. As he had no wish to make the relations between the Church and the Government more hostile than they were already, he had taken pains to ascertain whether the religious orders would meet him halfway, and whether the Vatican would countenance them in negotiating a compromise. It now appears that, whether he knew or only prophesied, the *Times'* Correspondent came very near the truth. A declaration has been put out on the part of the non-recognized orders which is nothing more or less than a formal act of adhesion to the existing order of things. The non-recognized orders have, it says, been misunderstood. They have no difficulty in affirming their respect and submission towards the present institutions of the country. They have never claimed to be independent of secular power. "The moral and spiritual aims they pursue do not permit them to bind themselves exclusively to any one political system." They have nothing to do with political parties and passions, and they must not place themselves at the service of changing causes and human interests. As regards temporal government, they are only concerned to "teach by precept and example" the obedience and respect due to authority, the source of "which is God"; and animated by these feelings they cannot help hoping that the Government will receive their declarations in a kindly spirit, and "allow them" freely to continue the works of prayer, education, "and charity to which they have devoted their lives."

The importance of this declaration must anyhow be great, and may be very great indeed. The coincidence between its appearance and M. DE FREYCINET'S speech can hardly be accidental. The PRIME MINISTER was in all probability not wholly ignorant of its contents when he drew a distinction between the Jesuits and the other non-recognized orders, and bade the latter apply for authorization under the law which is to be brought in next Session. M. DE FREYCINET has justified the predictions which said that he would be a far more moderate Minister than either his friends or his adversaries supposed. He has been content with a declaration which, though it contains everything that a moderate Republican can wish to see in such a document, is hateful to advanced Republicans because it makes the destruction of the orders which adhere to it additionally difficult. It seems impossible that M. DE FREYCINET should say at Montauban that the Government profoundly respects religion, and has only opposed the Church so far as the Church has associated itself with conspiracies against the Republic, and then refuse to take any note of a declaration which presents the religious orders as the dutiful servants of the Republic in all matters which do not touch the specific spiritual labours which they have made their own. There can be nothing gained by giving a distinct assurance one month and falsifying it the next. If M. DE FREYCINET'S object in issuing the decrees against the non-recognized orders was really to bring them to their knees, he has completely succeeded—succeeded, that is to say, in the only sense in which success was ever possible. What more could M. DE FREYCINET expect the religious orders to say than they have said in this declaration? They repudiate all connexion with political parties, all preference for one form of government over another, all identification of the interests of the Church with those of any particular set of human institutions. It is open, of course, to their adversaries to say that these disclaimers are not genuine. But the Minister who has invited them to make such disclaimers can hardly use this argument. He may refuse to enter into any negotiations with bodies whose word cannot be taken; but when once he has entered into them, he cannot refuse to accept the assurances given by the Plenipotentiaries on the other side. Indeed the sacrifices which the putting out of this declaration will entail upon the orders are so considerable as to constitute a very weighty evidence that the declaration is honestly made. It will be universally and justly represented as a surrender, and no one likes to have such a word applied to him. It will be regarded by many persons as a mean desertion of the Jesuits, and though there may be no great love between religious orders, it is not pleasant for one order to be accused, with some show of reason, of leaving another in the lurch, and of accepting favours at the hands of a Government

which has denied the Jesuits bare justice. Nor must it be forgotten that those who will bring these accusations, or at all events will wish to bring them, are the main supporters of the religious orders in France. The declaration will be excessively distasteful to the Legitimists, because it will prevent them from representing the cause of HENRY V. as exclusively the cause of religion. But the Legitimists are the party which has especially befriended the Church. The Bonapartists have been discredited, in their theological character, by the succession of Prince NAPOLEON to the headship of the family. The Orleanists are either Voltairians, or suspected of that liberal Catholicism which, even under LEO XIII., is only half liked by the ecclesiastical authorities. The Republicans are for the most part the declared enemies of the Church. Consequently, the active support which sustains the religious orders in their temporal capacity—which provides them with houses and chapels, fills their schools with pupils, and keeps subscription lists going for the promotion of the objects they have in view—comes with scarcely an exception from the Legitimists. The doctrine embodied in this declaration would have suited St. PAUL very well, but it can hardly suit the Count of CHAMBORED. The representative of the doctrine of Divine Right cannot care to hear that, in the eyes of the monks and nuns whom his followers are largely supporting, one form of government is as good as another, provided that it leaves the religious orders free to do their own business.

All these questions, however, will at first be subordinate to the question how M. DE FREYCINET's new concordat with the religious orders will be received by his own party. If the *République Française* is to be taken as an accurate interpreter of M. GAMBETTA's views, it will not be liked by the most powerful man in the Republican party. Yet, when it is remembered that a serious breach with M. GAMBETTA—unless it is to result in M. DE FREYCINET's immediate and hopeless fall—must involve the creation of a new Republican party, and its establishment as the dominant power in the State, it seems inconceivable that M. DE FREYCINET should contemplate anything of the kind. Between two improbabilities, it is wise to choose the least; and in this case it is easier to believe that the actual conductors of the *République Française* have been allowed to take their own line than that M. DE FREYCINET has suddenly resolved to measure swords with M. GAMBETTA. At all events, the speculation which of the two theories is the more probable and has most evidence in its favour is quite enough to occupy French politicians from now till the meeting of the Chambers. Until then nothing can apparently be done. M. DE FREYCINET has promised a general law applicable to all associations alike; and, even if he thinks the declaration of the orders insufficient, he can hardly punish them for delaying to apply for authorization until they see what the conditions are to which they must conform themselves in order to be authorized.

THE PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION.

THE contest for the Presidency of the United States, though it is but moderately exciting, may well suggest to Englishmen a feeling of envy. In a season of general prosperity, untroubled with domestic or foreign difficulties, the American people are at leisure to occupy themselves in harmless experiments on the comparative strength of parties. They have no Ireland and no Afghanistan, and their Government and Legislature have neither the will nor the power to disturb the foundations of property, and to cultivate hostility among different classes. The Greenback faction and the Labour League are obscure and powerless, and the two rival parties, of which the main function is to maintain political circulation, are separated by no intelligible difference of principles. General HANCOCK is less popular with his own party than Mr. TILDEN, but he has perhaps a better chance of securing neutral votes. As a soldier he rendered valuable service to the Federal cause during the Civil War; and after its close he administered a Southern military command in a spirit of conciliation and justice. His competitor, Mr. GARFIELD, also bears a high personal character, and he belongs to a class which is greatly esteemed and honoured in the United States. Having in his early youth lived by manual labour, he contrived to educate himself to a level with the dominant class of lawyers and politicians.

As a Volunteer officer he acquired credit during the war, and he has since attained a considerable position in Congress. Never conspicuous as a political leader, he became so well known as an adroit party manager that he was entrusted at the Chicago Convention with the care of Mr. SHERMAN's interests. When it became clear that the party leaders were only strong enough to defeat one another, Mr. GARFIELD satisfied the necessary conditions of comparative obscurity and of probable competence. He may probably be as good a President as Mr. BLAINE or Mr. SHERMAN would have been; and he is free from the damaging associations of General GRANT's second term of office.

The contending parties are, not without effort, working themselves up to the excitement which befits the occasion. The smallest part of their duties was to propound the political issues on which the contest is conventionally supposed to turn. The formal Resolutions respectively adopted at Chicago and Cincinnati, and the subsequent letters of acceptance written by the nominated candidates, exhaust the controversy, in which no serious interest is felt. The Republicans are more earnestly devoted than the Democrats to a protective tariff; but, whatever may be the result of the contest, there is no probability of early relaxation. The producers thoroughly understand their own private interests, while the consumers forming the general community are ignorant and disunited. Both political parties have formerly tampered with the public credit; but with the popularity of repudiation, the sophisms of its advocates have fallen into disuse. The Republicans even take credit to themselves for the so-called resumption of specie payments, which really consists in the equalization for the time of the values of paper money and of gold. As greenbacks are still a legal tender, and as they are not compulsorily convertible into coin, it is possible that specie payments might at any moment be suspended. According to law, public and private creditors may be still more effectually defrauded under the Acts which make silver a legal tender; but Mr. SHERMAN has hitherto contrived to thwart the combination of the silver-mine owners with the supporters of repudiation. Notwithstanding the importance of questions which vitally affect the public convenience and prosperity, neither tariffs nor currency will exercise any considerable influence on the approaching election. The two parties are more perceptibly divided on the policy to be followed in the South. The Democrats profess to apprehend Federal interference with State elections; and they announce their determination not to be again defeated by such frauds as those which deprived them of victory in 1876. The Republicans are not less vehement in their demand for freedom of election in the South; but, as may be supposed, they attach a different meaning to the phrase. The Democrats think of the whites, and the Republicans of the coloured voters, who, as they assert, would, if they were allowed to exercise the franchise, return a Republican majority in Florida, in North Carolina, and in one or two other States.

Both parties agree in the calculation that by fair or foul means the Democrats will carry all the Southern States. To return a President they must also obtain forty-seven votes in the North; and it is to secure or frustrate this result that all the efforts of political managers will be directed. Great importance is attached to a State election which is to be held in the course of September in Maine. Notwithstanding the boasted morality of New England, the Greenback faction is stronger in Maine than in other Northern States; and it is feared that the supporters of a depreciated currency may coalesce with the Democrats. Another doubtful State is Indiana, which will accordingly be visited by many itinerant orators abundantly provided with money. It is fair to admit that in American elections there is little or no direct bribery; but enormous sums are spent on delegations and on public meetings. Since the nomination of General HANCOCK, the Democrats have recovered their supremacy in the City of New York, where they were lately defeated in the election of a Governor by the secession of KELLY and his Tammany organization, in consequence of a personal feud with Mr. TILDEN. KELLY has now promised to return to his allegiance as a Democrat, though he is supposed to resent the leading part which Mr. TILDEN takes in promoting the candidature of General HANCOCK. The Republicans fear that the City will carry with it the State, but they still profess to be confident of the support of the rural districts.

Ohio, which was not long since doubtful, is believed to be secured to the Republican cause by the choice of two citizens of the State in succession as Republican nominees for the Presidency. It appears that no doubt is entertained of the fidelity of other Northern States to the Republican cause. On the whole, the chances of the competitors seem to be unusually even. As every citizen of the United States thoroughly understands the personal and political issues of the contest, it might be supposed that agitation and oratory would do little to affect opinions or votes; but election managers, who must be supposed to understand their business, cherish a traditional faith in the efficacy of crowded meetings and of vehement speeches.

The Republicans, being richer or more liberal than their adversaries, boast that they have collected a million of dollars, and begun to spend them, before the Democrats have commenced their operations. The party in power has a great advantage in its power of levying a contribution from every member of the Civil Service, for official persons are compelled to pay or to forfeit their appointments, and they are perhaps partially reconciled to the extortion by the knowledge that their tenure of office depends on a Republican victory. As the importance of a race depends on the amount of the sweepstakes and of the added money, a Presidential election derives much of its interest from the eighty thousand salaries which are staked on the result. On the other side, Democratic aspirants to office will perhaps subscribe to the election funds; but voluntary contribution is never as productive as a regular tax. A late meeting of two hundred and fifty Republican leaders at New York discussed and settled the general arrangements of the canvass. The party will probably abide by the decisions of the meeting, though Mr. CONKLING was significantly absent. Representatives of some of the Southern States implored the principal orators of the party to visit their districts for the purpose of encouraging the coloured voters; but the managers summarily rejected the proposal, having probably satisfied themselves that their eloquence would produce no impression on the vote of any Southern State. They preferred to employ their energies in Maine and Indiana, which will accordingly be gratified by torrents of oratory. In accordance with laudable custom, Mr. GARFIELD, though he was in another part of the same building, took no part in the discussion. On his journey to New York, though he was received at the stations with as much apparent enthusiasm as if he had been Mr. GLADSTONE travelling on an English or Scotch railway, Mr. GARFIELD observed the same commendable reticence. It seems that, in the most fluent and voluble of communities, silence is the privilege and duty of the highest. The professed orators on every occasion presented the Republican candidate to the audience, and then proceeded to speak on his behalf. General HANCOCK will also be represented by the proper staff of delegates and committees; but his principal adviser, representative, and manager, is the astute politician to whom he was preferred at Cincinnati. Mr. TILDEN finds a difficulty in diverting from himself the enthusiasm and applause which are officially due to the comparatively unknown nominee.

THE EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY BILL.

THE Employers' Liability Bill has throughout its career met with extremely hard usage. It is quite true that it was very far from being a well-drawn Bill. It was selected as one of the measures which there seemed most likelihood of getting through Parliament in a broken Session, and it was too hastily assumed that when a sound principle had been discovered on which to base it the details would somehow settle themselves. In the House of Commons it was more unfortunate in its supporters than in its opponents. No one man has done so much to imperil its success this Session as Mr. GORST. In dealing with a measure which is avowedly one of compromise, exaggerated friendship is just as dangerous as declared enmity. Either way the result is to threaten the maintenance of the compromise, and with that goes the justification of the particular Bill under discussion. If the Conservatives who wished to see the plea of common employment altogether done away with had carried their point, the Bill must inevitably have disappeared. If the Government had not withdrawn it in consideration of the contradiction which in its amended form it presented to

their declarations when introducing it, the employers in one or other House would certainly have been able to defeat it. The "Fourth Party" might not have been displeased at this result in either of the characters which it has lately pleased them to assume. Such enthusiastic friends of the working-man are naturally disposed to think no bread better than half a loaf, and such conscientious obstructives could not but have rejoiced at adding one more measure to the list of Ministerial failures. The extent to which the Bill steers clear of extreme views on either side has not been sufficiently appreciated. Notwithstanding the ingenuity in high places which has been spent in showing that employers would gain if the plea of common employment were altogether abolished, neither the injustice nor the imprudence of such a step has been disproved. If anything could make employers utterly careless about preventing accidents, it would be a law which made them equally answerable for accidents which they might have prevented and for accidents which it was out of their power to prevent. When the innocent and the guilty have to put up with a common penalty, the force of the inducement to remain innocent is indefinitely decreased. In point of fact, so far as the law is concerned, the inducement altogether disappears. With the plea of common employment done away with, conscientious and kindly employers would still be careful of their workmen; but employers who were neither conscientious nor kindly would have really no motive for being careful. Hitherto something of the same result has been arrived at by an opposite road. Whether the employer is careful or careless he has been equally free from liability. When the judges determined that an agent picked out after the most careful scrutiny, and a labourer taken on that morning because there was a job to be done and he was there to do it, stood on precisely the same footing as regards their employers' liability for their negligence, the employer had no longer any reason for inquiring whether those to whom he delegated his authority were as likely to be careful of workmen's lives as of employers' pockets. Between these two extremes the head of the Bill was originally pointed; and, on the whole, its course has been pretty steadily steered in the same direction.

The principal change which the Bill underwent in the House of Lords was the omission of the subsection which makes an employer liable for an injury caused by the "negligence of any person in the service of the employer" to whose orders or directions the workman at the time "of the injury was bound to conform and did conform." It is possible that experience may show that these words are too comprehensive. The case of a hodman who sustains an injury while carrying out the orders, not of his employer, but of the bricklayer whom he was supplying with materials, was instanced by Lord CARNARVON; and, if such a case should be held to come under the Bill, it may hereafter be found necessary to amend it. But the time of the House of Lords would have been better employed in rendering the Bill this service than in striking out the clause altogether. It may not be clear enough that the "orders or directions" to which the workman at the time of the injury was "bound to conform" are really the orders and directions of the employer himself—orders and directions, that is to say, given by agents who have been chosen among other things for the purpose of giving orders and who have been negligent in giving them. But, in the absence of an improved definition of the persons really contemplated by the clause, the House of Commons had really no choice but to disagree to the amendment. An agent to whose orders a workman is bound to conform is, from the workman's point of view, his employer. He is as much bound to obey his orders as though they came from the employer himself, and the employer is consequently bound to be just as careful in choosing him as he would be in determining what orders to give if he were himself giving them. If there is any defect in the clause, it lies, not in the relation it creates between agent and employer, but in its definition of what constitutes agency. As it stands, however, that definition embodies the best wisdom of the House of Commons. That wisdom might, in this instance, have been usefully supplemented by the Lords; but they were clearly ill-advised in omitting the clause altogether. An Act which did not make employers liable for the negligence of agents to whose orders the workman injured was bound to conform would have been obviously, and even ludicrously, incomplete. The fact that a workman

may sometimes be bound by the necessities of his employment to conform to the orders or directions of some one who is simply a fellow-workman, and not in any genuine sense an agent of the employer, would have been a good reason for altering the wording of the clause; but it was not a reason for refusing to deal with that large number of cases in which the man who gives the orders is undoubtedly the agent of the employer, and acting as such in giving the orders.

The substitution of seven years for two in the duration of the Bill is not an improvement. We fail altogether to see any good reason for the introduction of such a limitation in any shape; but, if the Government were of opinion, as they might very well be, that it was expedient to make some arrangement with the Lords, and not simply to undo their work, it would have been better to accept the limitation in the form given to it in the other House. The preponderance of argument is decidedly in favour of the shorter term. As the Bill would necessarily have had to be re-enacted two years hence, the subject would have been kept well before the minds of the Government, and they might have really busied themselves in ascertaining what amendments might profitably be introduced into the Act the Session after next. In point of fact, during the interval between 1880 and 1882, employers and workmen would have constituted an informal Select Committee, by whose labours a large body of evidence, as to the present and prospective working of the law, would have been got together with much profit to those who would have had to legislate on the question once more in two years' time. An interval of seven years has not this advantage. For purposes of amendment the passing of the Bill will be regarded as final. Nobody will trouble himself to draft suggestions which will stand no chance of being considered till 1887. At the same time, the fact that the Act is in form only a temporary measure will tend to unsettle all who have to do with it. On both sides there must be a good deal of concession if the new order of things is to work satisfactorily. The employers as a body would have wished to see no change made in the law. They have always contended that no addition to their liability was needed to make them careful as regards avoidable accidents, and that the addition which the Bill makes will virtually render them liable for unavoidable accidents. The workmen as a body have contended that no exception ought to be made to their disadvantage in the ordinary law which holds an employer liable for the acts of his servants. They would have wished, in fact, to see the liability of employers for injuries inflicted on workmen made co-extensive with the liability of employers for injuries inflicted on strangers. The best chance of bringing both sides to acquiesce in a compromise which in the nature of things can be grateful to neither is to make it appear that the settlement effected by the measure is meant to be final; but with a re-enactment of the law made imperative in seven years the idea of finality is wholly excluded. Why Mr. Dodson should suppose that the next Parliament will be better fitted than the present to deal with a new Employers' Liability Bill is not clear, unless indeed he cherishes the hope that by that time obstruction will have fallen into disuse, and the "Fourth Party" have once more submitted to the restraints of ordinary leadership. If this was his motive for lengthening the time between enactment and re-enactment, it is sincerely to be hoped that his glance into the future will prove prophetic. Should it do so, the credit he will gain by his prediction will be all the greater from the entire absence of any data on which to found it.

THE SESSION.

THE new Parliament met for the despatch of business on Thursday, the 20th of May. It consisted of 350 Liberals, 240 Conservatives, and 60 Home Rulers. All the members of the Ministry whose seats had been vacated by taking office had been re-elected with the exception of Sir William Harcourt; and Mr. Gladstone was present in the freshness of his vigorous old age to discharge the duties of a leadership which had been forced on him by the general conviction that, if he was to exist in the political world at all, he could hold no other place than the first. The Queen's Speech announced that the Government intended to pursue a foreign policy based on getting all the Great Powers to act in concert, so as to secure an early fulfilment of the Treaty of Berlin, to promote effectual reforms and equal laws in Turkey, and to settle all territorial questions. In Afghanistan it was proposed to establish so soon as

circumstances would permit an independent and friendly Power with suitable institutions, and early information was promised on the weighty subject of Indian finance. The supremacy of the Crown was to be maintained in the Transvaal, while free institutions were to be secured to the European settlers. The state of Ireland was said to be such that the ordinary law would suffice to secure order, and a renewal of the Peace Preservation Act was therefore unnecessary. The Government measures of the Session were to be a Bill for the relief of Irish distress and a Bill for the assimilation of the Irish to the English borough franchise, a Burials Bill, an Employers' Liability Bill, a Ground Game Bill, and a Bill for renewing the Ballot Act. It seemed a modest programme, and not disproportionate to the powers of Parliament in a Session that it was assumed must be short. Nor did it receive much criticism in either House. No one could openly object to the Government endeavouring to carry out the Treaty of Berlin; and the exact meaning of the foreign policy announced was so vague that the mover of the Address admired it as a policy of wise intervention, and the seconder used it as a text for proclaiming his antipathy to all intervention whatever. It was generally acknowledged that, if the Government was going to take a new departure in regard to Turkey, it was right in sending a special Envoy to Constantinople, and that no choice could have been better than Mr. Goschen. Mr. O'Connor Power attempted in the discussion of the Address to force the new Chief Secretary for Ireland to take up the Irish land question as the really pressing question of the day. But Mr. Forster answered, with much good sense, that the Government must have time to study so large and complicated a question as that of the tenure of land in Ireland, and that any hurried Bill on this question, even though confined to the subject of temporarily suspending evictions, would be a great mistake; and even Mr. Parnell, who was appointed by the Home Rulers to supersede Mr. Shaw as their Sessional Chairman, owned that the Government must have time given it if it was to bring in an Irish Land Bill on a satisfactory scale. It cannot be said that Government started badly. There was some Protestant murmuring outside Parliament against the appointment of a Catholic to the Viceroyalty of India; but it found no echo within Parliament. Sir William Harcourt was soon provided with a seat, Mr. Plimsoll being moved by nothing less than direct inspiration to create a vacancy for him at Derby. The Conservative leaders assembled in a formal meeting when Lord Carnarvon returned to their ranks, and Lord Beaconsfield exhorted them to be patient, prudent, and very attentive to the organization of the party in the constituencies. Some criticism was bestowed in the House of Lords, and more outside, on Mr. Gladstone's letter to the Austrian Ambassador, which was generally thought to be too humble an apology, and was pronounced by Lord Salisbury to be no apology at all; and the new foreign policy was denounced by the late Foreign Secretary as reposing on the ridiculous notion that the performers in the European orchestra could ever be brought to play the same tune. But time alone could show how the European orchestra would play.

But a cloud soon rose on the Parliamentary horizon. It was a cloud that had begun to show itself even before the Session was formally opened. Northampton had thought proper to return the terrible Mr. Bradlaugh, and when it came to his turn to be sworn in he stated that he had a conscientious objection to take the oath, the appeal to the Deity being to him unmeaning, and asked to be allowed to affirm. He might have been allowed to take this step at his own risk, and to the great advantage of the Ministry and of the House, had it not been for the apparently accidental intervention of Sir Drummond Wolff, who raised the objection that he was not entitled to affirm. The point at issue was a strictly legal one, and turned on the interpretation of an Act of Parliament. It was doubtful whether the Act meant that any person not wishing to take the oath might affirm, or whether only persons falling under the specified head of witnesses in a law court, under none of which Mr. Bradlaugh was included, might affirm. Lord F. Cavendish moved that the question should be referred to a Committee, and Sir Stafford Northcote seconded the motion. It was natural to suppose that a motion countenanced by the leaders of the Government and the Opposition would meet with no opposition. But Sir Drummond Wolff and Mr. Gorst, who even at that early date began to show their independence of their nominal leader, did their utmost to prevent the Committee being appointed. It was, however, appointed, and, by the casting vote of the chairman, Mr. Walpole, reported that Mr. Bradlaugh could not legally be admitted to affirm. Immediately after the Session had been formally begun Mr. Bradlaugh, not contesting the decision of the Committee, asked to be allowed to take the oath. There could be no doubt that if in the first instance Mr. Bradlaugh had been willing to take the oath no one could have stopped him; but he himself had stated in the House, and therefore directly to its knowledge, that he did not wish to take the oath because part of the form was to him unmeaning. Whether the competence of Mr. Bradlaugh to take the oath under these circumstances was a legal question or not was very doubtful. But Mr. Gladstone insisted that it was, and that it must be referred to another Committee. This gave rise to a heated and protracted debate, the Opposition, not without a great show of reason, insisting that the House must be competent itself to decide whether an oath could be taken by a member who had informed the House that the special sanction of the oath had no meaning for him. A majority of 75 supported Mr. Gladstone,

and a Committee was appointed, which reported, after hearing Mr. Bradlaugh himself, that the oath could not, under such circumstances, be taken. This was precisely what might have been expected; but what no one could have expected was that the Committee altogether strayed out of its province, and recommended that the conclusion of the former Committee should be summarily set aside, and that Mr. Bradlaugh should be allowed to affirm. This was entirely out of the province of the Committee, but it seemed to give an opening for putting an end to the controversy, and Mr. Labouchere moved that Mr. Bradlaugh should be allowed to affirm. Sir Hardinge Giffard moved as an amendment that Mr. Bradlaugh should not be allowed either to take the oath or to affirm; or, in other words, that the conclusions of the two Committees, so far as they had dealt with matters within their province, should be upheld. Two long nights scarcely sufficed for a debate in which the whole weight of the Government was used in support of allowing Mr. Bradlaugh to affirm. But the Government was beaten, and a month after he had begun to lead the Parliament that seemed entirely his own, Mr. Gladstone found himself in a minority of 35. The next day Mr. Bradlaugh asked to be heard, and was heard, but failed to influence the decision of the House; and, on his refusing to withdraw, was, on the motion of Sir Stafford Northcote, ordered into custody. Mr. Gladstone, having been defeated, refused to act in the matter at all, and on the following day it was Sir Stafford Northcote who proposed that Mr. Bradlaugh should be discharged. As it was certain that he would not apologize, he was discharged without being called on for an apology; and, as it was also certain that he would again present himself, the Government was forced to propose some fresh course. Mr. Gladstone accordingly invented a new motion, which technically avoided the objection that it was in contravention of the former decision of the House, as it was proposed, not that Mr. Bradlaugh, but that any one who objected to take the oath, should be allowed to affirm. There were grave objections to this proposal, as it left it to the courts of law to decide a point which the report of the first Committee pronounced to be in the competence of the House, and as it was made retrospective so as to include Mr. Bradlaugh, it did in effect contravene the decision of the House that Mr. Bradlaugh should not be allowed either to take the oath or affirm. Its only merit was that it temporarily disposed of a very unpleasant matter, and was carried by a majority of 54; but it is obvious that, if this was a proper course for the House to take, it ought to have been taken at the outset, and then a lamentable waste of public time and much angry discussion would have been avoided.

Before this matter had been brought to a conclusion, a fresh and most unexpected occasion for criticism of the management of the House by the Government had presented itself. M. Challemlacour had been appointed by the French Government as its English Ambassador, and Mr. O'Donnell thought proper to make a violent attack on the new Ambassador in the form of asking questions as to the previous history of M. Challemlacour. They were questions which ought never to have been asked, and to which it is extremely doubtful whether any answer should have been given. But as there was a very good answer to be given, the Government considered it advisable to say openly that the charges made against M. Challemlacour were unfounded, rather than that the new Ambassador should begin his official duty in England in the unpleasant position of a person who had been accused of assassination and robbery, and whose conduct had never been explained. Far from being satisfied with the answer he had obtained, Mr. O'Donnell got up and proceeded to reiterate his charges in a long and violent speech. The Speaker was appealed to, and pronounced that Mr. O'Donnell was technically in order, but stated that it was a very grave abuse of the privileges of a member to make such a speech, and he put it to the House whether the course taken by Mr. O'Donnell was a course the House would sanction. Mr. O'Donnell went on with his speech, and then Mr. Gladstone rose and moved that "Mr. O'Donnell be not heard." No such motion had been made for two hundred years, and it was in fact a complete Parliamentary novelty, and a novelty open to the most serious objections. Instantly the debate took a new form, and for hours the question was keenly discussed whether this startling innovation was to be accepted. Even the wildest Irishmen disclaimed complicity with Mr. O'Donnell; but every section of the Opposition protested against so alarming an interference with the freedom of debate. It was quite true that Mr. Gladstone was the last person who could be expected to have really any wish to limit debate unfairly, and he was only acting in response to the appeal of the Speaker. But the precedent he was endeavouring to create was of much wider application than was warranted by the circumstances. It seemed to lay down the startling doctrine that any member might move that any other member be not heard, and thus not only might every one in turn be silenced, but the business of the House would be brought to an utter standstill. The debate was not conducted with any violence of party spirit, and some Conservatives of great Parliamentary experience supported Mr. Gladstone. It was evident that what the House wanted was that Mr. O'Donnell should be stopped, and yet that a bad precedent should not be created. Ultimately this was accomplished, Mr. Gladstone withdrawing his motion, and Mr. O'Donnell confining himself to giving notice of a motion to be made on a future day. When Mr. O'Donnell attempted to put his views on paper, the Speaker held them to be for the most part not such as could be put, and so the matter ended. The character of M. Challemlacour was vindicated, and he has since been

well received in England. No dangerous precedent was set; but there was a painful impression created that the Government under Mr. Gladstone's leadership was inclined to propose heroic remedies on the impulse of the moment without due consideration of inevitable consequences.

This impression was soon strengthened by the course which Mr. Forster took with regard to Irish eviction. He suddenly announced that he would introduce into his Irish Relief Bill a clause giving compensation for disturbance to distressed tenants evicted for non-payment of rent. He appeared to be unable or unwilling to see that he was not doing a little thing but a great thing, and was raising the large question of Irish land which he had promised not to touch during the Session. When this was sharply pointed out to him, he was driven to take his clause out of the Relief Bill, and bring in a separate Bill with regard to eviction. His Relief Bill thus lightened was got through, although the House had to sit into Sunday morning to get it through Committee, and the Railway clauses had to be given up in deference to the wishes of Mr. Parnell and his friends. But the Compensation for Disturbance Bill met with a violent and protracted opposition. Lord Lansdowne resigned on account of his disapproval of the Bill, and most of the representatives of the great Whig landowners in the House of Commons either voted against the Bill or abstained from voting. The Ministerial majority was, however, large enough to ensure support to the Government on every division; but the Ministry was evidently very much puzzled how to present its measure and how to defend it. It was at different times defended as the only means of averting civil war, as the development of a germ in the existing Land Act, as the restoration of the Land Act to the form it assumed when it left the House of Commons, as in accidental harmony with French and Scotch law, as a proper check on harsh landlords, and as a measure that scarcely touched landlords at all, as they had remedies sufficiently powerful left in their hands. The statistics on which the measure was supposed to be based were successfully criticized. It was shown that proceedings threatening eviction had been mixed up with evictions, and that the policemen said to be engaged in enforcing the law had been multiplied by the simple process of counting the same men over and over again. It was also shown that the Bill would apply to nearly half Ireland, while in only about a tenth of Ireland was there at the time any real distress. The Government kept shifting its ground. It announced that it would accept an amendment, to be proposed by Mr. Law, that the Act should not apply where the tenant had been allowed to sell his interest. Mr. Parnell objected that this would do no good, as many distressed tenants had at best something that no one would buy, and there was the further objection that, under the Land Act, the tenant who did not pay rent had no interest to sell. Mr. Gladstone therefore dropped Mr. Law's amendment, and substituted one providing that in case the tenant offered terms then the Bill was to apply, if the landlord refused those terms without giving a reasonable alternative. This was vagueness itself; but it was inevitably vague because the Government had not really made up its mind as to what was the true position of the tenant under the Land Act, or what ought to be his position under a new Act. Everything was to be left to the discretion of a County Court judge, who was supposed to be able to solve every puzzle that had baffled the Legislature. In every direction it became apparent that the Government was plunging into difficulties that it ought to have avoided, because it was doing exactly what it had said it would not do, and was dealing with Irish land before it had had time to examine how Irish land ought to be dealt with. Mr. Chaplin pointed out with great force that, as the measure was said to be one specially intended for distressed people, it could only properly apply to those who were distressed, because they had very small holdings. The Government owned that there ought to be some limit, but they would not hear of the limit being fixed so that only holdings of 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ and under should be included in the scope of the Bill, or even of 30 $\frac{1}{2}$, being taken as the limit on the precedent of the Land Act, and ultimately fixed it at 45 $\frac{1}{2}$. In the Commons the Government would have its way, and had it; but the fate of the measure was sealed when it came before the Lords at the beginning of August. The Ministerial speakers felt they were arguing a hopeless cause, and in Lord Derby and Lord Emly they had two non-official supporters, who agreed that the Bill was as absurd and bad as a Bill could be, but who urged that the prudent course to take was to read the Bill a second time and cut it to pieces in Committee. Lord Lansdowne and Lord Dunraven stated the case of the landowners with moderation, tact, and ability, and Lord Cairns in a masterly speech summed up every objection to the Bill that ingenuity could devise. When the division was taken it appeared that only 51 peers supported the Bill against 282 who opposed it, and that, putting aside the Conservatives, there were more Liberal peers who voted against the Bill than there were Liberal peers who voted for it.

It thus happened that June and July had passed away, and the great bulk of the work the Ministry had set before it was scarcely touched. The Irish Relief Bill had passed through the Commons and was unopposed in the Lords, and the Lords had got through the Burials Bill, the only Government measure begun in the Upper House. As both Archbishops and eight Bishops supported the Bill, Lord Beaconsfield announced on the third reading that it was useless at that stage for lay Conservatives to be more tender of the interests of the Church than the episcopacy had shown itself to be. The Lords rejected an amendment exempting from the operation of the Bill churchyards given in recent times by private donors, but adopted an amendment directing that Dis-

senters should be only buried in churchyards where there was no cemetery with unconsecrated ground available, and another forbidding burials of Dissenters in churchyards on Sundays and the great days of the year in the Church's year-book. Lord Selborne insisted that the service must be an orderly and Christian one, and some concessions, borrowed almost at random from suggestions of Convocation, were embodied in the Bill with the view of consoling clergymen for the Bill by very partially relieving their consciences. It was not until August 12 that the Commons had time to pay some attention to the Bill, and the second reading was carried by an overwhelming majority, and the only important change made in Committee was the excision of the clause inserted in the Lords providing that the Act should not apply in parishes where there was ground provided other than the churchyard in which Dissenters could be buried. There remained among the measures announced in the Queen's Speech, the Irish Franchise Bill, which the Government decided to abandon, and the Ballot Bill, which they determined to include in the ordinary continuance Bill. This was of course not the mode in which it was proposed to deal with the Ballot when the Queen's Speech was framed, and thus it may be said that two of the Ministerial measures were abandoned. Two remained, and although the time had now come when Parliament is ordinarily relieved from any further serious work, it was resolved to go on with these two remaining measures. One was the Employers' Liability Bill, and the history of this Bill is one of the most curious episodes in the chronicle of the Session. The Government started to legislate on a very important subject without having any Bill at all ready. They actually carried the second reading of a Bill which was no Bill at all, and which was to have all its inside put into it in Committee. There was much opposition to the proposals of the Government as soon as it was seen that they had anything to propose; many Liberals objecting that the measure would be ruinous to employers, and some Conservatives asking that the doctrine of common employment should be altogether discarded. Attempts were also made to get compulsory or general adoption of insurance substituted for the system of compensation which the Bill was to introduce; but the Government got its measure through the Commons very much in the shape it desired, and adhered to the sound principle that employers should only be liable for accidents sustained by workmen when those accidents were caused by the negligence of agents for whose appointment the employers were distinctly responsible, and it was by a wide, but perhaps permissible, extension of the preamble that the guards, drivers, pointsmen, and signalmen of railways were expressly numbered among such agents. At last the Bill passed through the Commons, and the Lords began to discuss it on the 24th of August. An amendment was carried by Lord Brabourne relieving employers from responsibility for the acts of their sub-agents, and thus greatly limiting the operations of the Bill; and Lord Beaconsfield, to show that the Bill was only to be regarded as an experiment, induced the Lords to limit its operation to a period of two years.

The Ground Game Bill was pushed through the House of Commons as rapidly as possible after the Employers' Liability Bill was out of the way. Although it naturally excited much opposition, it was accepted without a division on the second reading, and was supported by a small portion of the Conservative party. It was avowedly an interference with freedom of contract, and was only justified by the evil consequences of an abuse of the right to preserve game which is not very frequent. But the tenants gave considerable evidence that they wished the measure to become law, and the Ministry had been too largely helped by tenants at the recent election not to wish to please its new friends. So many good landlords, too, owned that, although they disliked the Bill, yet it only embodied something like the arrangement which had long prevailed on their estates, that it seemed plausible to say that, after all, the Bill only imposed a good custom in a harsh manner; and during the debate Conservatives seemed to be annoyed not so much with the Bill itself as with the manner in which it had been introduced and defended. It certainly seemed hard on the landlords that because they wished to be at liberty to make their own arrangements with their tenants as to hares and rabbits, they should be denounced by Mr. Bright as the persistent enemies of their country. This Bill, like the one just referred to, underwent serious modifications in the Upper House.

The Government has also managed to carry some measures of minor importance. It would not abandon the legislation on which it relied to give it an assurance of its own activity. Two Bills regulating the wages of seamen, a Bill to limit grain cargoes, a Bill to facilitate the currency of small Post-Office orders, and a Bill to assure the State against losses by Savings Banks were among these achievements. But much the greatest Ministerial success of the season was the Budget. Sir Stafford Northcote had left a Budget which Mr. Gladstone took over; but this Budget only showed a small surplus, and not a very sure one. This gave Mr. Gladstone an occasion for introducing a very considerable financial scheme. He invited the House of Commons to do three things—to ensure a large surplus; to abolish the Malt-tax, a beer-tax being substituted; and to authorize him to negotiate with France for a new commercial treaty on the policy of the reduction of the English wine duties. This last part of his scheme had to be abandoned or deferred, as it was found that France was not ready to negotiate. But Mr. Gladstone insisted on his surplus, which he got in a great degree by a new licence duty on public-houses, and he got

the Malt-tax abolished. Its abolition would, it was estimated, cost in ready money more than a million sterling, which would have to be repaid to the maltsters; and Mr. Gladstone got this sum, and more than this sum, by adding a penny to the Income-tax. It seemed hard that Income-tax payers should alone furnish a sum which was paid for the benefit of taxpayers of all classes; and the brewers raised innumerable objections, to some of which Mr. Gladstone listened, as to the proposed mode of imposing the Beer-tax. But Mr. Gladstone was all-powerful. If the electors had not given him power to deal with finance, why could they be supposed to have cried out for him? The new Budget was carried almost without criticism, simply because it was Mr. Gladstone's Budget. The farmers had been for years clamouring for the repeal of the Malt-tax, and Mr. Gladstone wished to gratify them; and he escaped from the reproach that he was now recommending what he had invariably opposed by the ingenious discovery that the number of private brewers had so much decreased that it was now possible, while previously it had been impossible, to manage the working of a Beer-tax. Whatever Mr. Gladstone said was accepted, and it was accepted the more readily because the public saw that he had a distinct financial policy, a policy different from that of the late Government, and a policy which it seemed fair should be tried in its turn, the policy of upholding the national credit by providing a substantial surplus, and of making each year bear its own charges.

The foreign policy of the Government has occupied little of the attention of Parliament. At an early period of the Session Mr. Gladstone explained to Sir Stafford Northcote that it was not the desire of the Government to use force to Turkey, that he hoped to effect the objects he desired by bringing the pressure of United Europe to bear on the Porte, and that at the same time he hoped to convince the Turkish Government that England had no interest in the preservation of the Turkish Empire in Europe beyond what other Powers had, and certainly had no designs of special interference in Asia Minor. The sufferings and wrongs of the Armenians were brought to the notice of the Lords by Lord Carnarvon and to that of the Commons by Mr. Bryce, and no one could have shown himself more alive to the disgraceful misrule of Armenia than Lord Salisbury; but he urged that there was no practical remedy except the slow and uncertain action of consular reports, while the Government considered that it had a weapon of redress in the concert of Europe. Even now it is impossible to say whether the policy of the Government promises to be successful or not. The concert of Europe has been maintained, but it has not led to any practical result. The condition of Cyprus was discussed in the House of Commons, and Sir Charles Dilke announced that the new Ministry had no change to suggest except the acceleration of the transfer of Government to the Colonial Office; and he ventured to say what had been so much derided when said by the last Ministry, that the Ministry hoped to show the Turks how well a portion of the Turkish Empire could be governed. Nor has India occupied so much of the time of Parliament as might have been expected. Lord Hartington easily disposed of a motion deploring the opium traffic, by remarking on the cheap morality which proposed to disturb Indian finance without burdening English moralists with the task of supplying the deficit. He read a carefully drawn memorandum, in which he stated that Cabul would be evacuated with all possible despatch, that military experts would be consulted as to how much of the scientific frontier it would be wise to retain, and that the future of Candahar must be left for the present undecided. When the defeat of General Burrows by Ayoub Khan became known, and it was announced that Sir Frederick Roberts was to march to Candahar from Cabul, with the flower of the Cabul army, Lord Hartington contented himself with replying to his military critics, that the enterprise had been recommended by the highest local military authorities, and that the Government had merely abstained from interfering with the decision of those who staked their professional reputation and possibly their lives on the event. When at a late date and after repeated delays the Indian Budget came under discussion, Lord Hartington, in a speech of great force and untinged by party bitterness, said that even then he could not say what had been the real history of Indian mismanagement; that it was evident that, although the higher Indian financial authorities must be altogether freed from any suspicion of dishonourable concealment, yet they had fallen into a mistake which they might easily have corrected, and that, although the Indian revenue had shown in the last three years a very great surplus, and could probably bear without much difficulty the whole cost of the war, yet that in justice England must bear a share of a war waged in part at least for other than Indian purposes. How great this share ought to be he could not say yet as yet until he knew what the cost of the war would be. His hearers might differ from Lord Hartington, but they could find nothing to resent in what he said, and the general impression he has produced is that the Government of India is in firm and just hands. The course adopted by the Government to Sir Bartle Frere has not been equally free from reasonable censure. The Government was strongly pressed by some of its more advanced supporters to recall Sir Bartle Frere directly they had the power to show that they really meant as Ministers what they had said as leaders of the Opposition. This might have been a justifiable treatment of a public servant, although the better doctrine seems to be that when a public servant has made a mistake, and his mistake has been formally condemned by Parliament, no further reference to it shall be made. But the

Government, equally unwilling to recall Sir Bartle Frere and not to recall him, hit on a most unfortunate and unfair compromise. To avoid discussion, it knocked off the High Commissioner's Parliamentary salary, and it announced that while it thought him generally unfit for his post, it also thought he might be useful in bringing about Confederation. When he failed through no fault of his in getting the first step toward Confederation taken, he was informed that the Government found it impossible that he and it should get on any longer together, and he was recalled; and thus in the end the Government had neither the credit of acting up to its own views as to the Zulu war, nor the credit of supporting a public servant who, while the present Ministry had been in office, had given no cause of offence.

The innovating tendency of the new Parliament was shown by Mr. Hinde Palmer's Bill for giving the widest latitude to the pecuniary independence of married women and a Bill for the Welsh closing of public-houses on Sunday being read a second time without a division, and by Sir Wilfrid Lawson at last securing a majority for his beloved Local Option. Nothing further was heard of these measures, but that their supporters should have had so easy, although an ineffectual, triumph is worth observing. For once the House enforced the doctrines of a strict political economy by rejecting a scheme for giving to Irish fisheries through a large subvention an existence they cannot secure on their merits. An attempt was made by Mr. Roundell, Mr. Story Maskelyne, and Mr. Bryce to induce the House to pronounce against clerical heads of houses and clerical Professors of Hebrew and Church history in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge; but Mr. Gladstone successfully interposed with the objection that it was not for the House to dictate to the Commissioners appointed by the whole Legislature, and still sitting, what should be their conclusions. Neither the influence of Mr. Gladstone, however, nor that of Sir Stafford Northcote sufficed to keep the House from recording its protest against the erection of a monument in Westminster Abbey to the Prince Imperial; but the House wisely kept clear of anything like special antagonism to the Napoleon family, and suffered itself to be guided by Mr. Beresford Hope into the safe path of declaring that Westminster Abbey is a national burial-place, and ought to be reserved for the exclusive honour of English worthies. One private member has actually got a Bill through both Houses; and Mr. Dillwyn has signalized himself by throwing a new spell of protection over British birds. In the Lords, a Bill for legalizing the marriage of a deceased wife's sister was thrown out by a majority of eleven, although royalty again showed its open patronage of the only Bill in which it suffers itself to show a deep interest. The Lords also voted an Address in which the Crown was asked to suppress the Fourth Schedule of the Education Code; or, in other words, to check the provision for elementary education being used to promote higher education. A preliminary discussion on the subject, in which Lord Norton, Lord Sberbrooke, and the Bishop of Exeter had taken one side, and Lord Spencer and Lord Aberdeen the other, had made it clear that the issue was whether the system of elementary education was impeded, as the first set of speakers contended, or promoted, as the second set asserted, by the addition of higher instruction. Why the Duke of Richmond took in Opposition a line exactly the contrary of what he had taken in office was not so intelligible.

During the greater part of the Session election petitions have been in course of hearing and decision. In one Irish case the judges differed, but otherwise the results arrived at were so obvious that no great advantage appeared to be derived from the subtraction of double the number of judges from the ordinary business of the Courts. There was little party gain in these contests. Both parties suffered, and both retained with nearly equal success the seats they lost on petition. The decisions of the judges made three things clear—that a very innocent candidate may be unseated for some trifling indiscretion of an agent; that there was a startling amount of corruption, not only in some small boroughs, but in places so ancient and so important as Oxford, Gloucester, Chester, and Canterbury; and that the ballot has been the means of introducing some new refinements of malpractice. One curious point arose which attracted the attention of the House. Mr. Dodson was elected for Chester at the general election, vacated his seat on accepting office, was re-elected, was unseated on petition, accepted the Chiltern Hundreds, and was elected for Scarborough. The question arose whether it was proper to grant Mr. Dodson the Chiltern Hundreds under the circumstances, as to which Mr. Gladstone explained that it was only done through superfluity of caution to make it clear that Mr. Dodson was no longer in any sense member for Chester; and there was the further question whether the Chiltern Hundreds, being an office under the Crown, vacated the seat of a member who was already a Minister of the Crown. It was notorious that Mr. Gladstone in 1873, being already First Lord of the Treasury, accepted the additional office of Chancellor of the Exchequer, and did not think it necessary to seek re-election at Greenwich. Mr. Gladstone explained that he had acted according to his interpretation of the Act of Parliament, and that it was the business of other people to challenge the course he took. It is too early as yet to pronounce any definite opinions on the new House of Commons. All that can be said is, that it is certainly hardworking. There has been much time wasted, unnecessary questions have been answered at unnecessary length, and some members have spoken much too often, and at much too great a length. The temper of

the House was severely tried by the very unexpected length to which the Session was prolonged. But on the part of the recognized Opposition there was nothing like obstruction. The Irish, after the rejection of the Compensation for Disturbance Bill, occupied time that was growing very precious with a random debate on the strong, but not inappropriate, language in which Mr. Forster had characterized an inflammable speech of Mr. Dillon as wicked and cowardly. On the vote for the Irish Constabulary, the Irish made a grand display, resorted to obstruction of the old foolish, irritating kind, and kept the House sitting for twenty-one hours at a stretch. It was in vain that Mr. Bright tried conciliation and Lord Hartington firmness. The Irish longed for a faction fight and had it. Mr. Forster has shown them on the whole a firm front. He has declined to alter the composition of the new Irish Land Commission at their bidding, and although he used expressions capable of easy misinterpretation as to the probability of a new application for fresh powers being accompanied by a new Compensation Bill, yet he has strongly proclaimed the absolute necessity of upholding the law, and in proclaiming this he has been supported not only by English Liberals, but by all sections of the English Opposition. One of these sections has managed to make itself prominent by acting in limited independence of Sir Stafford Northcote, and compensating for the smallness of its numbers by its irrepressible activity and pertinacity. It may be said in defence of this little band that it is only acting in the same way, and may be rewarded in the same manner, as a group of advanced Liberals now high in office acted when Lord Hartington led the Opposition, and was rewarded when Lord Hartington and Mr. Gladstone came into office. Until his illness, Mr. Gladstone led the House with all his old untiring energy, and with all the domination of uncontested eminence. It was impossible that after his illness had taken a favourable turn and he was absent as a convalescent he should not be greatly missed, but Lord Hartington was at least equal to all that was expected. Sir William Harcourt and Mr. Bright have wantonly provoked considerable irritation, and Mr. Dodson has had the misfortune to be charged with the conduct of a Bill which had for a long time no contents, and with that of an absurd Bill for licensing the spread of small-pox on the payment of a small fine, which was fortunately abandoned. But, on the whole, it may be doubted whether the Ministry has, in spite of its flagrant mistakes, lost much ground.

ALTERIUS ORBIS PAPA.

WE are not sure who it was that first designated the Archbishop of Canterbury *alterius orbis Papa*, but the phrase was quoted and emphasized in the late Bishop of Exeter's Letter to Archbishop Sumner on the Gorham Case. To many it would probably sound far fetched, if not wholly fanciful, and it is certainly difficult to see at first sight how the jurisdiction of a primate presiding over the dioceses of the southern province of England can be brought into rivalry with that of a potentate claiming, and throughout the wide extent of his own communion exercising, ecclesiastical supremacy over the universal Church. Nor can it be justly said that there was, up to a very recent period, anything in the actual more than in the theoretical position of the Archbishop of Canterbury to give any countenance to such a comparison. In practice no less than in principle his influence and authority was restricted within the limits of his own province, or at least of the Established Church of England. When an episcopate of the Anglican form was to be started in North America about a century ago, the English primate of the day declined to undertake the responsibility of consecrating the first bishop, which was therefore relegated with his approval to the unestablished "Primus" of Scotland. And it is only within living memory that any attempt has been made to provide a colonial episcopate for the vast dependencies of the British Empire throughout the world. Great however and rapid has been the change in these respects within the last half century, and even within the last twenty years, as is attested among other things by the assemblage of two successive "Pan-Anglican Synods" or Conferences at Lambeth. But no previous Archbishop of Canterbury, so far as we are aware, has ever put forward the claims of his See to a kind of rivalry of Ecumenical jurisdiction with the Papacy as Archbishop Tait has done in his recent Charge at Croydon. With the latter portion of the address, which deals with questions of the internal government of the Church of England, such as the Burials Bill and the Public Worship Act, we are not here concerned. Nor shall we meddle with the theological views which may seem to be indicated or implied in the Charge. But two-thirds of it are occupied with his Grace's estimate of the present position and responsibilities of "this chair," which has at least the merit of being an interesting, and will to many readers prove a novel one. It may not inaptly be regarded as a discourse on the text we have prefixed to this article, *alterius orbis Papa*, as will readily appear from a brief examination of the contents.

The Archbishop begins by observing that "the circumstances of this archdiocese are peculiar, and are becoming every year more so," inasmuch as every year Lambeth is becoming more and more a centre to which the whole Anglican Communion, and indeed "all the Churches which protest against Roman usurpation" look for sympathy and support. It follows of course that the work of the primacy, as distinguished from the diocesan work of the local See,

is constantly increasing, and hence the latter has had to be handed over—and must always henceforth, as we are told, be handed over—to a Suffragan—much as the Pope devolves on his Cardinal Vicar the diocesan duties of the Roman See. The Archbishop goes on to refer to the 162 bishops of the Anglican Communion scattered throughout the world, of whom 100 assembled two years ago, with “expressions of filial regard in our metropolitan Cathedral of Canterbury, the birthplace of Anglo-Saxon Christianity,” and thence resorted for deliberation to Lambeth. We are next told of the frequent communications addressed to Canterbury from India, the colonies, and the United States, and not only so but from various outlying episcopal communities in the East—Syrian, Armenian, Chaldean, Nestorian, Coptic, Bulgarian, using “the old liturgies which are the basis of our Common Prayer,” and from the Greek Church itself as well in Russia as in Greece and Turkey. All “these Oriental Christians show a lively interest in our co-operation, and have of late years expressed their desire to know more of us and to act with us in a fraternal spirit,” and accordingly “those efforts, of which Lambeth is in a sort the centre,” ought to be encouraged. Then there are the Jansenist Church of Utrecht, and the Swiss and German and Mexican Old Catholics also appealing to England for sympathy. And besides all these there are the German and French and Swiss Protestants, the Swedish Lutherans and the Moravians, whose boundaries of separation from Anglicanism “fade to an indistinct line.” Clearly therefore “the time has gone by for us to rest in our insular position,” and “it will be our own fault, if all the Protestant communities throughout the world, episcopal and non-episcopal, do not feel that their cause is indissolubly united with ours.” And this being so, “you will grant that I am justified in a solemn address from this chair in regarding it as my duty to speak of things which concern the whole Church of Christ, and not to confine our view too much to the separate interests of our own diocese, or even to our own English branch of the Church.” This is in short a kind of primatial or patriarchal allocution addressed *urbi et orbi*, not simply an episcopal charge to the diocese of Canterbury. Now we are not going to inquire here how far precisely the Archbishop is justified in what may to many read like a somewhat enthusiastic estimate of the growing influence of his see; that it is not altogether devoid of justification is clear if only from the facts to which he refers. Indeed at the time of the Lambeth Conference of 1878 the *Church Quarterly Review* distinctly laid down that the world-wide Anglican Communion “finds its natural patriarchate at Canterbury,” and it was even seriously proposed in some quarters that the title of patriarch should be conferred on the Archbishop. Still less shall we enter upon any theological criticism of remarks which to some hearers or readers of the Charge may seem to make too light of the distinction between episcopal and non-episcopal Churches, or of the alleged errors of the Nestorian and other Eastern communities referred to. Our object is rather to call attention to the kind of position claimed for The Primate of all England and the very plausible line of argument by which it is supported. There can be no doubt that, whether with or without the title of patriarch, something of a quasi-patriarchal—not to say quasi-papal—attitude has of late years been almost thrust upon him by the growth of the colonial episcopate and the centripetal tendencies widely manifested in what is here called “the Anglican Communion scattered throughout the world.” Archbishop Tait may have felt bound to do all in his power to foster and develop such tendencies, but the movement began, as he is careful to remind us, in an application of the American bishops to his predecessor, Archbishop Longley, which resulted in the meeting of the first Pananglican or Lambeth Conference in 1868. And it seems to have arisen spontaneously rather than from any deliberate design on either side. The Archbishop represents the unity of which he desires to see “Lambeth, in a sort, the centre” as a counter influence to the Roman unity, though he would be glad if “our Roman Catholic brethren” would allow themselves to be included in a wider bond of universal brotherhood. What can hardly fail to strike any reader of the Charge, who is at all familiar with Church history—though there is nothing to show that the analogy thus inevitably suggested occurred to the writer himself—is the curious and instructive parallel between his account of the incipient growth of the central influence of “this chair” of Canterbury, and the rise and growth, as historians have traced it out, of the supremacy of the Chair of Peter. We do not refer only or chiefly to such polemical works as the late Professor Hussey’s *Rise of the Papal Power*, written for the express purpose of proving the purely human origin of the Roman claims, but to such learned and impartial works as Greenwood’s *Cathedra Petri*, or even to the treatment of the matter, on its human side, by apologists like Hergenröther or Cardinal Newman.

It has been too much the fashion with Roman Catholic controversialists to exhibit the Papacy simply as a divine institution, which came forth at the first full-fledged and complete, like Pallas from the head of Zeus, while their Protestant assailants have represented it as a studied and gigantic corruption based on usurpation and forgeries. This is not the place to discuss the validity of “the Petrine claims,” which had undoubtedly a good deal to do with the growth and gradual acknowledgment of Papal autocracy; the existence of a long series of spurious documents culminating in the Isidorian Decretals—which however in an uncritical age were very generally accepted in good faith as genuine—is unfortunately a matter beyond the range of discussion, as no candid writer of our own day on either side would dream of questioning.

But after making full allowance for both these sources of influence, it remains true, apart from any theological controversy as to the rights or wrongs of the matter, that the historical growth of the Papal power was largely due to causes of much the same kind as those dwelt upon in Archbishop Tait’s Charge. From the first “the circumstances of” the See of Rome “were altogether peculiar” and every year became more so, and its position at the centre of the world-wide Empire contributed both positively and negatively to its aggrandizement. On the one hand *e.g.* special rights of appeal to Rome were directly sanctioned by Emperors like Valentinian III.; on the other hand, as Mr. Bryce points out, the later fable of the Donation of Constantine had a groundwork of fact in the removal of the seat of Government from the Tiber to the Bosphorus, which made the Pope the greatest personage in the city. And that city was the capital of the civilized world. In the same way the Archbishop insists on “the great position to which the kindness of God has raised our nation,” and how “even people in a remote region, who are known to have a clergyman of the English Church among them will feel nearly as secure as if they were under the protection of some regular emissary of the English State.” And while considerations of this kind pointed to Rome as a natural centre, the ground for acquiescing in some central authority that might be recognized not only by “the Suburbicarian Churches,” over which alone her jurisdiction originally extended, but by the various scattered communities of Latin, and even in a measure of Eastern Christendom, was again that it satisfied a need generally felt. Archbishop Tait speaks of the Bishops of the Anglican Communion in all quarters of the world looking “with filial regard” to Canterbury. At the beginning of the fifth century Innocent I. declared that the Churches, not only of Italy but of Gaul, Spain, and Africa owed filial obedience to the parent see, as they had all been founded by St. Peter or his successors. It was a considerable advance on this tolerably extensive claim when Leo I. half a century later said, “Roma per sedem Beati Petri caput orbis effecta,” but Gregory I. did more in fact than either Innocent or Leo to advance the power of his see by his missionary energy and the fame of his personal sanctity. But the centripetal force was all along the same. The pretensions of Rome, whether secular or religious, to quote Mr. Bryce once more, “both sanctioned and satisfied the passion of the age for unity.” It was from a similar conviction of the need of some kind of central power for holding together the manifold scattered divisions of “the whole Church of Christ” that Reformers like Melancthon, and men like Grotius and Leibnitz in the next century, who were anxious to bring about a reconciliation between the German Lutherans and the Papacy, professed themselves willing to concede to it some kind of primatial or patriarchal authority, as Melancthon put it, “ut doctrinæ consensus retineretur in multis nationibus,” or because, to use the words of Grotius, “in every college and society of men there is need of a director.” That there is some force in this common-sense view of the matter no reasonable man will deny, but it is equally clear that, where no strong counteracting influences are brought into play, it may easily be pressed in ecclesiastical as in civil matters to the extremest and most despotic consequences. It used to be a favourite argument at the time with the more moderate apologists of the Vatican decrees that papal infallibility must be accepted at all costs, when once sanctioned by Rome, whether it could be proved to be primitive or not, because it was certainly wrong to break with the centre of unity. We are of course very far from suspecting Archbishop Tait of making any such demand of allegiance as that for his See, and he indeed insists that unity must be balanced by diversity. But a study of some work like the *Cathedra Petri* will show how the Papal power, as it now exists, did in fact grow up from comparatively small beginnings through an increasing sense of the need of some central authority, while on the other hand the checks imposed on its development, whether by the civil Government, or by patriarchal, metropolitan, and other competing jurisdictions previously recognized in the Church, were on various pretexts one by one suppressed or withdrawn. It is interesting to trace a certain analogy in the sketch drawn by the Archbishop to the earlier stages of the process, though it would be somewhat Quixotic to apprehend under conditions so materially different the possible establishment of such another Papacy at Lambeth.

A GOVERNMENT OF MANY COOKS.

THE friends of the Government are getting up a testimonial to Mr. Adam; we do not know that its enemies and the public generally could do better than to get up a testimonial to Sir William Harcourt. The Home Secretary has in the course of the Session been repeatedly instrumental in illustrating the peculiarities, not to say the weaknesses, of the Ministry which he so conspicuously adorns. Nothing could, in a small way, be more characteristic of the Gladstone Government of 1880 than the almost forgotten cattle incident at the Oxford election. By way of inculcating Sir William Harcourt’s claims upon the citizens of Oxford, these independent and enlightened citizens were treated to the sight of a large procession of foreign oxen, the meaning of which was that the late Government had been cruelly curtailing the English meat supply, and that their successors would throw it open and cheapen it. Sir William is not yet a veteran in the

Home Office, and he has lived to see the cattle orders put forth by his predecessors eulogized by his own colleagues and maintained in the face of Radical attack. It is true that the opinion of the citizens of Oxford has ceased to be a matter of pressing concern to the Home Secretary. He has migrated—politically speaking—from the Isis to the Derwent, and it is very satisfactory to think that his new seat cost him considerably less than his old. The migration sent him back to Parliament perhaps a sadder, but apparently a not much wiser, man. The guardianship of hares and rabbits, or rather the task of multiplying the foes of these unhappy beasts, has had a bad effect on Sir William's natural lightness of heart. He has joked but rarely of late, and his jokes have been of a grim and savage character when they have appeared. But on Saturday last he retrieved his reputation by perpetrating a joke of a very superior kind. It was probably not done on purpose, unless we are to suppose that the dull defensive war of office weighs on Sir William's spirits. But it was not the worse for this; indeed, it may be said to have been sensibly the better.

Saturday afternoon and evening were, it is hardly necessary to say, devoted to the Burials Bill. The crisis of Mr. Osborne Morgan's life had arrived. There is a well-known story of a mysterious traveller who said to Dr. Johnson, in an inn-parlour, "Sir, do you know who I am? I am the great Twalmley, who invented the new floodgate iron." If any one can imagine the state of mind of the great Twalmley on being charged by an all-powerful Ministry with the conduct of a Bill making the use of the new floodgate iron compulsory upon all washerwomen, then he can also imagine the state of mind of Mr. Osborne Morgan on Saturday. He had not only invented the Burials Bill, but he had nursed it through its troublesome youth, and fed it into something like a body and a presence. Before Mr. Osborne Morgan nobody had a grievance on the subject, and there are impatient Nonconformists—*vide* the reports of their triumphal breakfast some months ago—who stoutly deny that they have any now. But Mr. Osborne Morgan "promoted" his grievance with a skill worthy of the most accomplished financier. He got it quoted on the political Stock Exchange, he made the chief men of his party take shares; in fact, he showed talent which, in the strictest and most literal sense of the famous phrase, was worthy of a better cause. His felicity of Saturday was of that kind which is hardly permissible to human beings, and which Nemesis is but too apt to temper with some unlooked-for ill. The unlooked-for ill came in the person of the Home Secretary. It was not to be expected that Sir William Harcourt should take a persistent or studious interest in the Burials Bill. To Sir William, as to most of his colleagues, the Bill has been, of course, merely a means to an end, and the attainment of the end has fortunately relieved them of any elaborate anxiety about the fortunes of the means. But it so happened that at the moment of Sir William's serene entrance into the House on Saturday an amendment was being discussed, which had some distant reference to points of historical and constitutional law. On such points Sir William Harcourt is supposed to be something of an authority, and he boldly struck into the discussion at once. This would never do; it was an outrage upon the constitution and the principles of historical Liberalism, and Sir William proceeded to demonstrate in the most convincing fashion that he and the Home Office would never away with it. Now unluckily, not only had the particular amendment, though urged by a private member in the first place, and therefore fair game for Sir William, been accepted by the presiding genius of the hour, the Judge-Advocate-General, but this acceptance had been ratified by the presence and acquiescence of Lord Hartington himself. The tableau must be admitted to have been a striking one, and the light cast upon the unanimity of Ministers, and the careful manner in which their concert is secured, to have been rather lurid. What made the imbroglio more delightful was the fact that burials and such like matters really come in a way within the Home Secretary's province, and that Sir William therefore spoke apparently with added weight. Had such a thing happened in an Irish debate thirty-six hours of motions to report progress would have been the inevitable consequence. It may surprise those who have discovered that Tory obstruction is to Irish as sunlight to moonlight to learn that no such result followed. Lord Hartington had to get up and remark, of course politely and Parliamentarily, that the Home Secretary had been speaking for himself, and that honourable gentlemen must not mind him. Sir William confirmed this statement in the most genial manner, and the incident by favour of the Opposition ended peaceably and with a great laugh against the Government. But it is terrible to picture the feelings of Mr. Osborne Morgan, and they can be dimly adumbrated only by recurrence to our former parallel, and by the supposition that at the last moment a superior of the great Twalmley had got up and denounced floodgates as an unconstitutional and radically illiberal adjunct to flat-irons. As it is, Mr. Morgan is nearly as much to be pitied as he is to be envied; his greatness has ripened, it is true, but fruits after ripening drop. It is not given to man to discover two such profitable inventions as the Burials Bill, and really if Mr. Osborne Morgan were only a Nonconformist, which we believe he is not, it would seem to be the best thing for him to get himself buried under his own Bill. He has lived and has carried, or as good as carried, a measure relieving a grievance which nobody felt at the expense of inflicting one under which thousands of persons will smart for years. He has enjoyed the happiness of this world, and even Sir William Harcourt, whose powers as a kill-joy are considerable, has not

been able to dash the cup from his lips. The song of Thekla is clearly the most appropriate ditty for the lips of the member for Denbigh.

The Home Secretary's escapade, however, ought not to be regarded in this merely personal and isolated fashion. It is an admirable illustration of the chances which await a Government of too many cooks. One of the first public performances of any member of the present Ministry was the assumption by the Postmaster-General of the functions of the Secretary for India. Mr. Fawcett ate his words; Lord Hartington did his best to follow Barnes Newcome's advice, and sweep up the broken glasses; and the matter ended. Almost the last incident of the Session has been a similar and still more dramatic piece of meddling, in which Lord Hartington has again had to perform the same function. The truth seems to be that the excess of talent in the present Government is so great that little accidents of the kind are unavoidable. Everybody knows everything about every department of State, and everybody is generously eager to display his knowledge. This general omniscience evidently renders the prosaic expedient called a Cabinet Council something of a work of supererogation. There is no need to secure the Ministerial concert, because all the members are ready to take their parts, or anybody's part, at a moment's notice and play them faultlessly. Such incidents as that of Saturday, not to mention a good many others earlier in the Session, would seem, however, to show in the Ministerial concert the same trifling defect that Lord Salisbury discovers in the European. They both have a habit of being out of tune. In the case we are at present discussing it would indeed be very singular if the concert were not out of tune. Ministers are very fond of proclaiming the wonderful harmony which exists between them and between the different sections of their party. The evidences of this harmony contained in the votes on the Bradlaugh business, on the Irish Disturbance Bill, and in this matter of the disposal of the remains of Mr. Osborne Morgan's interesting clients would make a good subject for a prize essay of the Barnett and Bridgewater kind. If these things are done in a first Session, a more excellent harmony still may reasonably be expected at second, third, and future appearances. For the present there is what is called in melodramas a Bond of Blood between the members of the Government party. They have just slain a Tory Ministry, and can hardly be supposed to be yet weary of dancing over the bodies. Moreover, the many cooks are still occupied in the preparation of their particular messes. Mr. Osborne Morgan is the happiest man of this Session; Mr. Dodson, with his Anti-Vaccination Bill shelved, is probably the unhappiest. But the cooks and their messes seem too apt to get a little mixed. Sir William Harcourt's juggled hare jostles Mr. Osborne Morgan's cold Dissenter, and Mr. Forster's Irish stew has pushed several messes of Scotch broth, as well as the just mentioned soothing syrup for infants and their mothers, off the fire altogether. After a few more of these processes the harmony of the cooks, already rather disputable, may be expected to disappear altogether. We have been pretty plainly given to understand that the simple and elementary dishes of the present year are to be succeeded next year by something much more ambitious, and this will give the independent spirits of the Liberal Ministry and the Liberal party more room to display their independence. The Home Secretary in particular may be safely relied upon for many more pleasing displays of private judgment. If it were not audacious to tender advice to a Ministry which unites all the talents with all the virtues, we should suggest that the best way to secure unanimity would be to arrange for one Minister only to attend the House and take charge of all Bills during each day or week. The known ability of the members of the Ministry is such that none of them could object to the responsibility, and the spectacle of one member of the Government getting up and flatly contradicting another would be spared. Besides, as it is rather a habit of the present Ministry unexpectedly to lose their seats, considerable difficulties would be avoided in this respect also. There might indeed be some pleasing variations between the conduct of measures in successive hands, but that could not be helped. Besides, it would be difficult to exceed the latitude which the Government have already allowed themselves on this head. Under such a system it would probably be necessary to chain Sir William Harcourt to the Home Office desk during the days when he was not on duty in the House. But he has already been accustomed to considerable absences from St. Stephen's, and thus the enforced abstinence from debate, though doubtless trying, would not be altogether novel to him. Lord Hartington, when he has succeeded in getting the Indian authorities to let him have some intelligible information about the orders which exposed a British army to a disgraceful defeat, might perhaps give his mind to the task of muzzling his former mentor.

IDEAL ARMIES.

TO no subject in one or other of its many aspects is the attention of Parliament, the press, and the intelligent part of the nation given more frequently than to the method by which the thorough efficiency of our national forces, naval and military, may be secured. The quick succession of little wars in which we become engaged serves in great measure, no doubt, to keep up the general interest. And in such sense they are a godsend to the nation. Without them we should, after our fashion, go to sleep;

and we cannot afford so to do. Every notable European Power is striving to obtain the most perfect possible army; striving to economize in other ways so as to devote more money to the arming and training of no longer tens of thousands or hundreds of thousands, but millions. Each Power also is striving to possess a navy which in one or more particulars shall distance all competitors. Every new weapon and missile and deadly invention is greedily caught up and examined by experts deputed from each country to watch what is going on in all the others. It is no exaggeration to say that over the whole of Europe the best energy and intelligence of all peoples have been for years past, are now, and will be henceforth, exercised in devising the most certain means of acquiring superiority on the battle-field. No professions of goodwill by monarchs, no assurances of rival statesmen that the preservation of peace is their first object, no dream of a coming era of universal brotherhood, no belief in the civilizing agencies of commercial treaties, must blind us to the likelihood that in some near time a tremendous conflagration may be the result of the vast heaping up of combustible matter now proceeding everywhere.

It must seem strange to many people that with all the attention we give to our army, and the enormous sums we spend upon it, we never seem perceptibly nearer attaining such perfection as to place it beyond the reach of disparagement at home and something like ridicule abroad. It is some satisfaction, however, to learn that in every country the national army is a subject for dissection and criticism at the hands of theorists, civilian and military; and if our own imperfections are constantly being exposed with more or less reason, and remedies suggested of more or less efficacy, so is this the case also in France, Italy, Austria, Russia, and in Germany itself. Each nation, as we said, desires to possess an ideal army; and in proportion to the excellence of the ideal is naturally the difficulty of realizing it. That in England we are some way off attaining excellence all round may be taken for granted. We can confirm this negative aspect of things any day by a visit to Aldershot or the Curragh, when attending a Queen's review at Windsor, or even when watching the morning parade of any cavalry or infantry regiment. Latitude being apparently permitted now to military men in a degree which would have wonderfully exercised the Duke of Wellington to hold forth in public upon everything—we had almost said everybody—connected with military matters, it is not difficult to arrive at the professional opinions held by both staff and regimental officers. When we hear, then, from those who are at once experts and interested in the credit of our army, judgments condemnatory of various points in our military system, it is not open to the general public to attribute all such judgments to a desire of finding fault, or to set down the fault-finders as croakers and theorists. On the other hand, the very interest many officers of ability and scientific civilians take in the army impels them a little too fast sometimes in the path of inquiry and reform. Any one who peruses the valuable and too little read "Journal of the R. U. S. Institution" will perceive how the authorities are beset by inventors, some of whose inventions reflect credit on their authors, while others are remarkable as much for their eccentricity as for their ingenuity; but the inventors, as a rule, seem to have this in common—an absolute faith in their own specifics, and a belief in the existence of a conspiracy to reject these without adequate testing. It is always difficult to make men with a hobby comprehend that those who are responsible for all novelties introduced into the complex machine of an army have to look at the general, and not only the particular, results of a change.

Each country has difficulties common to many others, and each has difficulties peculiar to itself, in the endeavour to compass the most perfect military system. All are working on different conditions, with very diverse material, for an identical result—the achievement of a machine elaborated with all the newest inventions. A common danger, of which perhaps we have in the case of France at this moment an illustration, is, lest, on the one hand, we think too much of mere machinery and mechanical accuracy; and, again, lest we become oblivious of wholesome traditions and adopt half-digested theories. To take a minor instance of the first danger, many military men propose to lay down hard and fast rules as regards the proper formation of infantry for attack, forgetting apparently how infinitely ground varies and situations vary; while others legislate absolutely for formations of defence, and even for preservation of certain distances. Now, no wood, and no hill, and no stream, and no plain is exactly like another, and the peculiarities of each demand at least some recognition. Though we have got rid of much of that rigidity of movement which we had borrowed from Prussia, there is a tendency to frame in its place a theory of formation, of drill, and of manœuvre, which shall be applicable under all circumstances. That is to say, we picture to ourselves what battles are like or ought to be like, and then we drill up to their fancied requirements; but, as Sir Garnet Wolseley says, "We ought to do exactly the reverse; we should find out what an action really is like, and then modify and adapt our drill to provide for these tactical realities." And as, according to the same authority, the culminating point of any action is utter confusion, "it behoves us in our drill to accept that confusion, to prepare for it, to recognize that it is an essential part of every general action, to drill up to it, and frame our regulations with a view to meeting it, and not to ignore it and say it is a thing you ought to avoid."

The inference to be drawn from the striking examples recorded in history, where a poorly conditioned and imperfectly trained

force has worsted one of pattern organization, discipline, and drill, is not that there is no great virtue in method and precision, but that these are apt to become engrossing subjects of attention, to the exclusion of considerations which should always be present—the cultivation of *morale*, and the opening out a field for talent, judgment, and enterprise. It is the glory of the later German school to have so far, in direct opposition to their former habit of war, and even, we may say, their natural genius and disposition, successfully associated adequate precision of detail with wise latitude of action. To our theorists of opposing schools—to those who in each fresh development of the tactical art discover a stronger necessity for increased discipline, stricter drill, greater centralization; who see in telegraphs, signalling, ballooning, so many instruments by which a commander centrally situated may more readily communicate with his divisions grouped about him; and, on the other hand, to those who are all for dispersion, who would substitute loose drill *plus* intelligence for exact distances, accurate point-dressing; who look upon telegraphs and signalling as so many means of uniting units of command rather than as giving a central chief a better hold upon his divisions, who are in a word for extreme decentralization, and whose war motto is "order in disorder"—a taking phrase the soundness of which has not yet been submitted to the logic of reverses—we would submit this question:—"Is not each successive stage of the art a compromise, where the best traditions of the past assimilate the developments of the present, rather than a revolution which would establish the art upon a novel basis?" While the first school dreams of an army grouped as of old about its chief, but receiving from him more rapid inspiration than formerly, the second forgets what force there is in the tradition of an army, what merit in its best traditions, and how impossible it is to break away from such without impairing seriously its most cherished and potent characteristics. An army has a continuous history, with its economical, tactical, martial traditions; these are its very life; the story is not passed by one set of men to their descendants to be obscured and mutilated in the passage; but every man joining a regiment is, as it were, woven into the texture of his corps, and becomes part of a system, and the representative of a tradition. The development of tactics affords fresh scope, and gives wider employ for the exhibition of national characteristics, and does not act detrimentally upon them. Rather we may say that the army of every country gains in that its highest qualities find wider area for their expression. To illustrate our meaning; it is often said that the French lose much by the introduction of arms of precision, their chief battle characteristic being impetuosity, and their successes having been largely due to the brilliant dash of their column attack, now become impossible of execution. But if they lose in one way they gain, we think, more in another; they are naturally the most intelligent soldiery in Europe, and their quick-wittedness, when intelligently directed, will find a wider field for its employ, through the expansion of its power in a more open order of combat, than in the old concentrations where individuality was lost. Moreover, the success of both cavalry and infantry onsets will now more than ever be due to brilliant dashes executed with new precautions and in other formations. Possibly there were many found in Prussia to foretell all manner of disasters when the breechloader was introduced into their army, and to predict at a later date that the Prussian tactical system would not survive any modification of rigid lines and deep columns. Yet how admirably does that leaning in the national character towards strict discipline, method, formality, tend to correct those exaggerations which might otherwise grow out of the power given to inferior commanders of initiating action. So that the Prussians have no fear of that coming about which at present perhaps too much exercises the French—namely, the fear of their troops getting out of hand when in scattered formation.

And have the British no tradition in their military story which should make them chary of obeying the battle-ways of the last Power which happens to be victorious in the field? What is it but a link in the chain reaching from Crécy and Agincourt which causes it that our troops are armed with the best rifle (taking it all round) in the world, and are also the steadiest shots and most skillful marksmen? It is well worthy the reflection of such as taunt us with being an unmilitary people that the instinct which taught us to look to the bow as the arm with which we should achieve most, and the capacity that enabled us to use it more effectually than others did, has survived every change; the teachings of tradition were visible, as at Ramillies and Malplaquet, so in all our Peninsular battles; as at Inkermann, so now also. It is curious and instructive how our entire people seemed to grasp, as if by instinct, that the perfecting of small-arms would benefit themselves more than others. The very first idea in the minds of all practical military men is, whatever our system of tactics may be, we *must* make of our soldiers good, steady marksmen. That which in no mean measure has tended to popularize the Volunteer movement, and keep the men together, is the widespread system of rifle competition and the universal desire to be a good shot. The truth that in the long run the battle would be to the best holders of the best rifle was appreciated in England years ago. When, in 1860, the present writer went to Châlons, he was at once struck by the manifest inferiority in the shooting of French soldiers to that constantly seen at home. He was still more struck with the inadequate apprehension by the officers of the pre-eminent part good, steady shooting is bound to play on the battle-ground. While our rifles were sighted and used with effect up to 900 yards, the French were only sighted to

500 yards. Over that distance the thumb was roughly used as a back-sight, it being considered useless to endeavour to obtain accuracy in the confusion and smoke of battle. In twenty years rifles have improved, and more than ever do we recognize the utility of turning out in every corps the greatest possible number of good shots; and we strive to impress on each soldier of what importance is his individual weapon and prowess, and how essential it is all fire should be given with deliberation. It is suggestive of conscious power that while French and Turks begin to blaze away in harum-scarum fashion at the extreme of rifle reach, on the bare chance of some shots telling and with a view to encourage themselves, our idea with the Martini, as with the older weapons, has been to reserve fire for distances within which our men can rely on proven skill, and to abjure wild, aimless shooting, with its attendant waste of ammunition and its unwholesome manufacture of excitement. "The first object of a captain," says Captain Freemantle, in the naval Prize Essay for this year, "should be to bring his men to close quarters with the enemy while still cool and under command. It is certain there will be less excitement and more careful firing subsequently."

It follows, since we lay such store by good shooting, that we should give without revolutionizing them, such expansion and such elasticity to our tactical formations as will enable us to get the full value out of our arm. No need exists to upset the organization of our infantry regiments. As steady shooting during a combat can only be secured by the most unremitting surveillance of the company officers, we have at once a solid argument in favour of small companies. The French adopted the Prussian system of large companies, and then found these were not manageable, even in peace manoeuvres, unless the captains were mounted. But nothing is more certain than that the idea of a mounted captain controlling a line of skirmishers in action is a myth. In the first place, he is compelled to dismount—in the battles of their two great wars the Prussian infantry captains dismounted—and then how is he situated for directing his 250 men? Our authorities deserve all credit for not having surrendered, as the French did in a panic, the old system of small handy companies, well officered. With the majors of half-battalions lies, or should lie, the power of initiative possessed by Prussian infantry captains; while the fire-control of each company is the matter which lies more immediately within the compass of the captain's discretion, and is the point to which he should always, with due regard to securing all available cover, direct his attention.

But did we not *always* aim at giving our men's individuality full play? Another old British tradition, beyond that of making good marksmanship a paramount consideration, was the adoption of formations admitting of the widest fire development, such as lines three and two deep, and hollow squares. Napoleon was a long time in finding out the loss of fire power occasioned by the French practice of forming lines four deep. It was not, if we remember right, till 1813 that he issued that remarkable order—"The Emperor directs that henceforth line shall be formed three deep, His Majesty having observed that the fire of the fourth rank produces no effect." Truly a startling discovery to be made so very late in the day! It is strange indeed that we should be taunted with dulness of tactical apprehension when down to the other day we have always proved our marked tactical superiority; and stranger still, that so many in our midst should have read history to such little purpose as to ignore the very causes which, more than any leadership, brought about triumphant results on so many fields. It is, then, the tradition, and it is the instinct, of British troops to seek tactical excellence and superiority in the use of weapons. These are our strong points. And here we rejoin our argument.

In our pursuit of the ideal we start, as we have seen, with strong points in our favour. It behoves us to see that we are true to our past, while we consider how to redress the balance where our neighbours have advantage of ourselves. Each people having its strong and its weak points, in what do we compare unfavourably with others? The answer is not far to seek. "The British soldier," wrote Sir William Napier, "is the soldier of battle." He did not say, and could not have said with justice, "he is the soldier for a campaign *par excellence*." A Frenchman, a Spaniard, is a far better campaigner; he can shift for himself, is contented with less, is not so helpless without his superiors, not so utterly dependent on his beef and rum, is more cheerful and tractable under privation. This applies with equal force to all arms. There is a saying, we fancy little known, of the Duke of Wellington which was told us by a late member of the House of Commons who was present at the dinner-table of the Prince Regent (George IV.), when the latter put it to the Duke that in campaigning the British cavalry are the best in the world. "The French are very good, Sir," replied the Duke. "But the English are better," pursued the Prince. "The French are very good, Sir," the Duke quietly persisted. Again, there is invariably observed about a British army an unreadiness to enter upon a campaign. It is discreditable that a Power having so many interests to defend should be perpetually surprised into a state of unreadiness for even a little war, and should have to fling about millions broadcast before an army duly constituted can be set in motion. Like the Austria of the times before 1866, we have aimed too much at perfecting individual military instruments, and thought too little of combining them for harmonious action. Again, how important it is now-a-days when mind against mind is called into greater exercise in various degrees from the general to the private soldier, that all should

take pains to learn and be eager to receive instruction. "Our profession," says Admiral Jurien de la Gravière (he is speaking of the navy, but the remark applies with considerable force also to the army), "was formerly an instinct; it is now a science." Yet any one who knows anything of British officers must have noted their indisposition to interest themselves in any subject of professional scientific inquiry. They have an intelligent hold of two or three main ideas, and trust to their mother-wit and common sense (of both of which it must be conceded they have much) to supply all deficiencies as occasion shall arise. Since such is notoriously the case, how difficult does it become to spread instruction among the rank and file! One particular result is that any practised eye watching a battalion at outpost work or light infantry manoeuvres on ground inviting judicious utilization will draw the conclusion, three times out of four, that what is specially aimed at on all sides is the carrying out of barrack-square drill, with its set distances, &c., according to regulation, and not the turning to profit of opportunities afforded by accidents of *terrain*. Do our generals set an example to their staff, and field officers to their regiments, of studying, we shall not say the sometimes ponderous technicalities of Jomini or the Archduke Charles, but such admirable practical works as those of Hanley and MacDougall? How many of our cavalry and infantry officers, excepting some of those who have passed the Staff College, are competent to execute a rapid and sufficiently accurate reconnaissance of a tract of broken country, to trace the most suitable field-work for the situation and the occasion, fortify a village, select the most appropriate kind of bridge to throw over a stream and direct its construction, report upon the suitability of a position for defence, and the like? On the other hand, we should be somewhat surprised if the first German officer we came across was not quite competent to do any of these things. We need not stay to argue the necessity of giving our officers the best theoretical and widest practical instruction when we see how universal is opinion abroad in favour of spreading professional knowledge among all ranks. Italians are fully as earnest as are Germans in making scientific preparation against the next war. In France, before 1870, all ranks spent their day in *cafés* and their intelligence over dominoes, billiards, and absinthe. In the mornings, at least, the *cafés* are now almost tenanted, for officers and men are kept hard at work. We may be very sure that, in the next struggle, instructed intelligence will come well to the front.

An ideal army—one of which the component parts shall be all equally perfect by reason of possessing the highest physical, moral, and intellectual qualities, and the best possible organization—it can of course be the expectation of no Power ever to possess. In fact, to obtain a perfect force, in one sense, it would be necessary to form an international army, with solidity borrowed from one source, science from another, high *morale* from another, &c., and the conglomeration would lead to most imperfect results on the whole. What is within the competence of every Power is to adapt its special genius to the turning to account of successive developments in the art; and, while neglecting no means of strengthening weak points, to obey its own instinct of war, and hold fast its traditions of battle with such gradual modifications in organization and tactics as experience shows to be advisable. As regards ourselves, whatever we do, let us be in no haste to imitate the French, who, after swallowing entire the German system, are evidently at a loss how to digest it, and who, in Prussianizing their army, run no small risk of losing those characteristics which have hitherto rendered them so formidable on the battlefield. That instinct of war and that art in war which at Waterloo disposed our array in such manner as to secure the greatest amount of concealment and protection, with the widest sweep of fire, and the power of assuming a swift offensive, have able exponents now also, if these are less illustrious than Wellington; and, arguing from a continuous exhibition of tactical superiority in the past, we may be persuaded that the tactics we adopt with conviction to-day will be found in sufficient correspondence with the necessities of to-day.

DRAWING.

IT may seem presumptuous in these days, when South Kensington has extended its paternal despotism over the length and breadth of the land, to assert that drawing is, as a rule, very badly taught in England. But we do assert this most distinctly, and we are encouraged in this temerity by the example of M. Viollet-le-Duc, who, shortly before his death, wrote an elaborate work with the express purpose of establishing a similar proposition with regard to France. This work, the *Histoire d'un dessinateur*, is cast in that abominable narrative form which has fortunately ceased to flourish in England, besides being burdened by the introduction of a French version of Mr. Barlow, with an incredibly good little boy, who is almost more insufferable than Harry Sandford; but to any one who has the patience to disentangle the important ideas so elaborately wrapped up in the entirely uninteresting personal history of Monsieur Majorin and petit Jean, the work cannot fail to be instructive.

We all know how drawing is generally taught. The lowest depth is to be found in the system of the fashionable drawing-master. In this the greatest stress is laid on the management of the pencil. Trees are to be represented by a particular touch, rocks by another, water by another; shadows are rendered by parallel lines; lights can be advantageously

put on with white chalk, &c. In a word, everything turns on manipulation. Until very recently the system pursued in the great schools of art was little better. There was an elaborate method of stippling by which the shadows were worked up to an exquisite velvety texture, whilst correct outline or modelling were regarded as quite secondary matters. There used to be harrowing stories told of pet pupils at South Kensington who spent six months on the shading of a single figure, and entrance to the schools of the Royal Academy is still barred to those whose accuracy of drawing is not equalled by the smoothness of their execution. At South Kensington there has been a great change for the better since Mr. Poynter has been placed in authority, but routine is still powerful, and art is still taught as if it had no relation to the life around us. And this brings us to the question, what is drawing? Drawing is the art of seeing correctly. There is no difficulty in putting down what one sees, provided one sees it clearly and rightly. Execution is a mere affair of practice, a dexterity which any hand will attain with time and use. The great masters have used the most varied means of recording their impressions of nature. No two ever draw alike as regards mere execution; but all succeed in conveying to others a correct impression of the image that was before their eyes. In the *Histoire d'un dessinateur* the artistic capacities of petit Jean are first discovered by a rude drawing that he has made of a cat, in which the animal is represented as seen from the front with only two legs and a tail sticking out of the top of his head. When it is pointed out to him that this cannot be like a cat, because a cat has four legs and a tail that does not grow out of the top of his head, he only replies that he saw it so. Whereupon Mr. Barlow—we mean Monsieur Majorin—embraces him tenderly, and adopts him on the spot. And, indeed, petit Jean was quite right; he had drawn what he saw, and nothing else, and that is the task that all draughtsmen have set before them. This is the capital problem not only of draughtsmanship, but of many other things. To state what one has observed without telling lies about it is the most difficult thing in the world, but on this depends all progress in the whole domain of science.

When petit Jean has been adopted by M. Majorin, he is encouraged to draw anything and everything that he sees around him. These drawings are duly corrected, and, when it is practicable, they are made an excuse for instructive explanations which would seem to belong rather to general education, but which are useful also to drawing by impressing the objects drawn more firmly on the mind. And here we come to the important truth that drawing, although it must always chiefly depend on the direct observation of nature, can nevertheless be greatly indebted to various indirect aids. A little elementary geometry is of great service, as giving certain typical forms by which the forms of nature can be classified and remembered. The mutual relations of these forms are given by geometry in their simplest aspects, and disentangled from the complications which are met with in real life. When familiarized with these abstract types, the pupil may proceed to perspective, the study of which is hopeless until he has a clear understanding of what is meant by a straight line, a plane, an angle, &c., knowledge which oddly enough does not come by nature or even by definitions, but, like most other knowledge, by familiarity. The study of perspective is a very important aid to drawing—so important that the conventional teaching has been compelled to recognize it—but with characteristic perversity has always begun with it at the wrong end. As in the study of grammar, a number of rules are given before the pupil has the least conception of the subject matter to which they are applicable—in neither case are the results very encouraging. And yet the proper way of teaching perspective is very simple. Very soon in the course of his drawing the beginner stumbles across certain difficulties, owing to the discrepancy between what he really sees and what he thinks he ought to see. For instance, he is drawing a cart. Knowing that the two wheels of a cart are of equal size, he draws the further wheel as large as the near one, and then his drawing looks wrong. His teacher takes the opportunity of explaining that things decrease in apparent size as they are further away from the spectator, and that apparent size is all that he has to trouble himself about. When the pupil has got this clearly into his head he has mastered the fundamental principle of perspective. The teacher now informs him that there are certain rules founded on this principle which will enable him to draw simple figures with great facility and correctness. Having learnt these rules, the pupil is taught to connect them with practice by some such simple device as tracing a building, a piece of furniture, or any real object of sufficient simplicity, on a pane of glass, and then seeing that the rules of perspective are merely an account of how such objects look. It is this conception that is so essential to a vital knowledge of perspective, and which the ordinary teaching so entirely neglects—namely, that everything in nature is seen in perspective, and that for the simplest cases there are definite rules which can be applied in aid of observation. For complex cases, such as the forms of clouds, or trees, or mountains, or the human face, no definite rules can be given beyond the fundamental one that the apparent size of an object decreases as the square of its distance; so that perspective can never be more than a slight help to that direct observation which is the foundation of all drawing.

Drawing is aided in a somewhat similar way by an elementary knowledge of various sciences, such as anatomy, morphological botany, and geology. These enable the draughtsman to avoid errors and direct observation to the important points of the object to be portrayed. Again, they increase the interest with which he

looks at forms, and are an immense help in enabling him to remember them; but they have their dangers, in tempting him to substitute what he thinks he ought to see for what is really visible. For instance, superficial knowledge of this kind might have made petit Jean draw his cat with four legs when he only saw two; and in no case should the importance of these studies to the draughtsman be exaggerated. They can enlarge his mind and they can aid his observation, but they can never stand in the place of it. It is certain that the Greek artists of the best period were unacquainted with anatomy, but their knowledge of the human form has never been equalled. It will be objected when we have got so far that our draughtsman is always supposed to be drawing something that he sees before him; is he never to draw out of his own head? Certainly he should be trained to draw from memory, especially if he afterwards compares his drawing with the original to keep up his standard of correctness. But is he never to imagine anything? As much as he likes; but that is no part of his education. No one can teach imagination. If he has it, all the better—if he has not, he may still be an excellent draughtsman. He may be taught to combine the elements of things he has seen so as to make new things that he has not seen, and for this any scientific training will be of great use; but the creative touch that will put something new into the combination, something that did not exist in any of the elements, is a matter of genius, and as such unteachable. We must teach our draughtsmen to see things as they are, and to so portray them as to give a correct idea of their appearance to other people—with that the duty of the teacher ends.

It will here be objected that all this will never make an artist; that, in all genuine artistic work, there is an element of taste, of refinement that such training will not give. Granted; but then our draughtsman need not become an artist. This is precisely the question that is faced by M. Viollet-le-Duc. After petit Jean has learnt to draw, M. Majorin makes various experiments to see if nature has destined his pupil to be a painter or a sculptor. Having decided in the negative, he is not a bit discouraged, being of opinion that knowing how to draw cannot fail to be useful to a man in any position of life. And indeed, if our definition is correct, it is obvious that a draughtsman must have had his faculties of observation sharpened far beyond those of his fellows. Petit Jean gets apprenticed to a cabinet-maker; and of course makes his own fortune and that of his family, with that fine regard for consistency in which books are so much superior to real life. But we may readily grant the extreme value of good draughtsmanship in all pursuits where knowledge of form is at all essential. Indeed, in no other way is that familiarity with form obtained which is essential to dealing with it successfully. But, supposing petit Jean had had the artistic sense, would his training have been of benefit to him as an artist? Undoubtedly. It has never yet been held, even by the most refined of art critics, that a painter can draw too well. But will not this extreme accuracy have deadened his artistic sense? Will he not sink into vulgar realism? That depends on petit Jean himself; if he has imagination it will come out in his pictures, and all the more freely in that he has fewer technical difficulties to contend with. Indeed there is nothing sadder than to see high imaginative gifts cramped and spoilt by the insufficient means of expression at the command of the artist. But supposing he has no imagination? Then he had better be content with realism; if he has the true artistic taste, we may be sure it will not be vulgar; realism, after all, means nothing worse than truth to nature. There is an art which teaches and inspires and an art which records.

Of artists who are qualified to teach the world there are but few. Of those who can do good service in recording the beauties of nature there are fortunately many, and there would be more were not so many eager to teach who have nothing to say, and to inspire who have no inspiration. If we wish to be freed from the false sentiment, sickly pathos, and forced tragedy of modern art, let us not be too hard on realism.

THE HARVEST.

WITHIN living memory probably there has not been anxiety more intense as to the results of the harvest of the country than that which during this season has filled the minds of men who have to do with land. Farmers' grievances have passed into a byword, and even now are not believed in by the public at large. There can, however, be no question about the wolf having come at last. The successive failures in various crops, and the epidemics which have worked such sad havoc among herds and flocks during the last few years, have ruined, as is well known, an immense number of farmers. How many more there are whose resources are all but exhausted is not known. Many have given up their farms as insolvents; others have given them up in the hope of saving some small fraction of their capital out of the wreck; many more hold on in the desperate hope that a succession of good seasons may be before them, when they may be recouped the losses that have brought them to the brink of ruin. It is not to be wondered at that those who had capital sunk in the cultivation of their farms should hold on to the last, in the hope, however desperate, of seeing their money back. And landowners generally have made concessions, varying in degree and in kind, to their tenants, in order to induce them to struggle on. Not uncommonly

landlords have been obliged to postpone their claims, even for a reduced rent, until after the growing crops shall have been turned into money, with the knowledge that, in case of failure, there would be no rent forthcoming. These, at any rate, have the advantage of having their lands kept in good cultivation. Other landlords have had their farms thrown on their hands, no tenants appearing for them, and for want of skill in some cases, and for lack of capital in others, and sometimes for want of both, the farms are losing condition and becoming intrinsically less in value from month to month; if nothing else prospers, weeds grow apace. A favourable season is the only chance these men have of attracting good tenants even at a reduced rent. Neither landlords nor farmers can now have any expectation or hope of obtaining high prices for the produce of the land in the future. All that they can rely upon is that they possess the advantage of having the first chance of supplying the home demand; if their supplies are wanting in quantity or quality, their foreign competitors instantly by aid of railways and steamships occupy their places in the market. It has been abundantly proved that there will in the future be no compensation in high prices for bad or indifferent grain crops; it follows that in farming on the existing system in this country any seasons that are not fairly good must bring disaster to landowners and farmers. For several years by reason of unfavourable weather there have been bad yields, without, however, any approach to prices that could be regarded as high. It was acknowledged that the last stage of exhaustion had been reached. If relief did not come, in the shape of good crops, there must be widespread ruin; and a ruin not affecting farmers and landowners only, but spreading to the dealers and shopkeepers from whom they obtain supplies, and through them to the wholesale merchants and manufacturers. It is therefore most satisfactory to find that, while it cannot be said that the season of 1880 will be adjudged to have been a year of abundance, yet the estimates of its produce already made can leave no doubt but that on the whole the yield of the land, in spite of many heavy drawbacks, will be found to be greater than those of any of its three or four immediate predecessors. An early harvest is almost invariably a good one, a late harvest is always a bad one. An early harvest means that the spring found a strong plant upon the ground, that all the stages of development and ripening have been gone through and have succeeded each other rapidly, that there has been no check from disease nor delay from wet weather, and that the plant has consequently had an uninterrupted and vigorous growth, and that the grain has been ripened and dried at the earliest possible time. A late harvest, on the other hand, declares that there has been weakness or disease of the plant at some stage, or perhaps the want of a temperature sufficiently high to ripen the grain; or worse, rain may have fallen at the very time when hot weather was required, and thus not only have delayed the ingathering, but also have done irretrievable damage to the crop. Thus when we find this year that in the early days of September there is still much corn in the fields and very little in the markets, we may well suspect that all is not so good as it might have been. If we look back, we remember that the winter left us with a regular plant upon the ground in apparently a healthy condition; that it came into ear fairly early, but with some irregularity as to time and as to height, which recalled to our minds the sodden state of the soil in which it had been planted, as a reason for any defect; that all went tolerably well until the heavy rains of July wrought much mischief, especially in the Midland districts, by breaking down the stalks and developing mildew, rust, and such like diseases, and by delaying the ripening of the crop. Subsequent short periods of forcing weather gave rise to hopes of gathering a generally well-ripened crop, whatever may have been its defects; but the sunless character of the weather during and up to the last week of August has destroyed these expectations, and whatever may be the yield as to quantity, we fear that the bulk of the crop, unless where farmers have exercised the greatest patience, will be found to be in a moist condition and lacking in those constituents which are of most value. This is the more unfortunate as such produce is never saleable, nor acceptable to the consumer when offered in competition with dry grain of foreign growth. The money yield of the hay and grain crops of 1879 in this country was so disastrously bad because the hay crop, though large in quantity, was so ruined by the rain as to make it almost valueless as fodder, and the grain was so unripe, and its condition so damp (the crop being at the same time very small in quantity), that purchasers would take it only at very low prices compared with what was paid for dry foreign grain. Thus during the winter months home-grown wheat which, if properly ripened and dried, would have brought as much money as certain sorts of foreign corn that were used in substitution, had to be sold at 15s. or 20s. per quarter less than they fetched, a loss to the farmer which may be entirely attributed to the want of warm weather at the harvest-time of last year. Barleys, in the same way, were damp, stained, and blighted, and there was a difference of 20s. per quarter between the best, and they were not so good as the best foreign, and the inferior qualities. On the small crop of last year the lack of dryness alone must have cost the farmer at least two or three pounds per acre, more probably, in every case, than the rent of the land. A prolonged harvest is very expensive, as it entails the constant employment of labour during the whole time it is in progress. The loss from lack of condition this year will not be comparable to that of last year, but it is even now too soon to say with any certainty what its amount will be. It is very certain, however, that the value of the 1880 crop of

grain has been very appreciably diminished by the lack of sunshine during August. The delay in the ingathering renders it most difficult to arrive as yet at any certain determination as to the quantity. Reports vary much even in the same district. There are crops this year which will yield largely. Barley and oats will give higher proportionate results than wheat. Probably barley will be found to be the crop of the year in quantity, though in quality for want of sunshine it will be found wanting. Wheat in some cases gives a bountiful yield on threshing, while in others it is said that growers are much deceived and disappointed. Taking into consideration the damage that has been done in wide and fruitful districts, the yield cannot be expected to exceed, even if it reach, an average.

From what has been said it will be clear that the difference to the farmer on a comparison of the results of 1880 with those of 1879 will be enormous. The loss he suffered from failure in quantity and quality in 1879 was very great; cases are quoted in most districts of the whole money return of the grain crop of certain farms being only one-fourth, or even one-fifth, of what they yield in fair years. To put such cases into figures—on a farm where the tenant has been accustomed in years of average yield to realize about 10,000*l.* for his corn crop, he received last year less than 3,000*l.*; in another case, where the receipt was 7,000*l.*, the 1879 crop sold for 1,600*l.* In each of these farms, if prices should be at about the level of those of former years of fair yields, the tenants would probably obtain for their crops of 1880 the larger sums named. Are they, then, likely to obtain such prices? Judging from the experience of the past year when the European crop was generally bad, and speaking of wheat, we should say that the expectation must be for low prices, even perhaps for very low prices. France has a fair crop, and will not require anything like the imports of last year, and the area supplied through the Belgian and Dutch ports will require comparatively small shipments. The falling off in the demands of Western Europe will set free a large proportion of the American surplus, of which practically this country will be the only considerable purchaser. America has, it appears, at least as much to spare as she had last year, and more perhaps than her home consumption and that of Europe can take off. The stocks of the world are very low, and it may be that, if wheat becomes cheap, large reserves may be established on the chance of a bad crop occurring next year. If, however, the Americans are determined to convert the whole of their crop into money, very low prices may be expected to prevail. The Report of Messrs. Pell and Read contains matter of the greatest importance with regard to the price of wheat landed at Liverpool, though their estimate of the amount that will afford a profit to the American grower seems to be at variance with those of other authorities. It is certain that, counting on only a moderate supply from America, the wheat crop of the world assures sufficiency, if not plenty, and our farmers must therefore expect to receive low prices for wheat. Barley is universally a large crop, and the price would therefore, under any circumstances, be low, and the abolition of the Malt-tax—or, rather, the transfer of the duty from barley to beer—will, by encouraging the use of cheaper materials and of the inferior barleys of foreign growth, diminish the demand for English malting barley, so that for this article the farmer must expect a low price to prevail. The price of oats depends very much on the value of maize, and on this crop it is too early yet to obtain information, but on the presumption that the crop will be a fair one, as oats are a heavy crop generally, the range of price must be moderate. On the whole, then, farmers must make up their minds to accept low prices, which, however unsatisfactory to them and to their landlords, will be regarded with equanimity and satisfaction by people who are not landowners or farmers. But in the result the depreciation in the value of arable land which has already taken place will be confirmed and generalized. There is nothing in prospect to attract capitalists to invest in farming operations in the corn-growing line.

THE POLICE REPORT FOR 1879.

THE Report of the Commissioner of Police for the metropolis is always a more or less interesting document. Grumblers say that the elaborate tables of all sorts of things which it contains occupy policemen in their preparation a good deal more time than they are worth. It is only fair, however, to point out that these very statistics go far towards vindicating the police from the charge of remissness and inefficiency, which is a kind of stock charge against them. The famous cry of, "Where are the Police?" could only be completely obviated by detailing a constable to follow everybody and another to stand sentry before every house—duties which it is perhaps not very easy for ten thousand men to perform in a population of four millions. In some cases, no doubt, the force is absurdly inadequate to the work. In new suburban districts this is specially the case. One of the Divisional Superintendent's reports before us speaks of a district in which one beat takes two hours and a half, and another three hours and a half to work. The mere statement of the fact is enough to show that the unfortunate policemen charged with these beats simply could not do their work unless they were capable of dividing themselves into half a dozen. On the whole, however, there is no doubt that fair protection to person and property is given by the force, especially when the total absence of anything like a regular system of police supervision is remembered. Nothing is less

tolerable to Englishmen than such supervision, and we must in this as in other things take the broad with the long.

Sir Edmund Henderson has the usual details to give as to the increase of the city under his charge—21,589 new houses were added to London last year, and about 234 new policemen were put on to meet the increase. These houses, if arranged side by side opposite each other, would cover a street more than seventy miles in length. London was rather less drunk and disorderly in 1879 than in the year before, but it was somewhat more violent. As usual, a fatal accident happened in the streets on an average one day out of every three, while an increasing number of victims were injured more or less severely. It is rather surprising to find that nearly ten thousand lost children were reported to the police, and that two-thirds of these were found by them. Of the remaining third, only twenty-five failed to reach their homes in one way or another. 1879 was a specially suicidal year, which, considering the dismal weather and the general depression, is perhaps not much to be wondered at. No less than 259 persons carried their disgust of life to the furthest extreme, an increase upon 1878 of fully fifty per cent. It is somewhat remarkable to learn that the attempts to commit suicide were not so very largely in excess of the actual suicides. Four hundred and four such attempts are recorded; so that apparently about two in five would-be suicides have resolution and forethought enough to carry out their design. Turning to a more cheerful subject, it is satisfactory to learn that common lodging-houses—not model dwellings of the fancy class, but actual common lodging-houses—are being built on a larger scale and of a better kind than formerly. Sir Edmund speaks of one at Poplar arranged for over four hundred lodgers, and containing very superior accommodation. Readers of that curious book *Sketches in Shady Places* will know how to appreciate this. With regard to cabs, the Hansom continues to increase and the Clarence to decrease. But of the cab of the future, the open, but moderately closable, Victoria, or something of the kind, there is yet no sign. That the conduct of our fathers in providing no facilities for lunatics who might have wished to look about them at hideous buildings and to imbibe freely pestiferous air was reasonable no one will deny. But now that some pains have been taken to beautify London and to clear its atmosphere, it might seem not wholly wild and foolish to provide means of seeing it. The Director of Criminal Investigations has nothing particular to report except that he dealt with 40,128 official letters during the year, “necessitating uninterrupted application.” If this is an appeal for sympathy, we fear that Mr. Howard Vincent is not quite certain to get it. Uninterrupted application at office hours is, if only by courtesy, expected from paid officials and professional men generally, and we do not apprehend Mr. Vincent to mean that he is obliged to sit up all night over his letters, or to adopt the pernicious practice of reading them at meals. In the various tabular statistics of the police force itself, the most noteworthy item is that there is a police constable who entered the force in 1834. The imagination cannot avoid lingering over this aged constable, coeval as a policeman with the most famous of port wine. Are there no arrangements for pensioning constables of forty-five years’ service? How does this ’34 constable come not to be a Superintendent or an Inspector, or a sergeant at least? The Report gives us no means of answering these questions, and as bad conduct would surely in forty-five years have turned a man out of the force altogether, we can only suppose that in the police, as in other professions, the influence of the great goddess Luck is all-powerful.

There are two points in this Report, one of them old, the other new, which seem to deserve some special attention. For many years the police have been endeavouring to impress upon the public generally that he who wishes not to be “burgled” must resort to the ordinary and usual, but strangely neglected, methods of keeping out the burglars. These latter professionals have been defined as useful public servants who, for a consideration, impress practically on the mind of the public the necessity of keeping doors and windows shut. It would perhaps be more strictly correct to say that they fail to impress the mind of the public with this necessity. Something like twenty-seven thousand doors and windows were found by the police open or insecurely fastened during the year 1879. Now, it is hardly necessary to say that the doors and windows open to the comparatively cursory inspection of the police are by no means so numerous as those of which the active and persevering crackman can avail himself. It would not be extravagant to assume that for every one of the first class there are two or three, if not four or five, of the second. There are few cases in which anything but the front of a house is exposed to the police, while the burglar, as a rule, modestly prefers the back. As it is, of the nine hundred houses broken into in London during the year, six hundred, in round numbers, were empty, and the divisional reports go to show that of the remainder a very considerable number must have been in a condition more inviting to the burglar than otherwise. Superintendent Draper, of the D division, asserts that in every case of burglary in his district the premises were left unattended to or were insecurely fastened. Superintendent Harris, of Hampstead, quotes an instructive instance in which the operators tried one house and finding it well fastened up, transferred their attentions next door, where the unguarded crib was cracked with ease. In the Kensington division, twenty-two out of forty-nine burglaries are set down to demonstrated weakness and inefficiency of fastening. Superintendent Fisher, yet more suggestive than his brethren, points out that it is not sufficient to have fastenings, but that the

fastenings must be good. This point is perhaps worthy of more attention than it often receives, and the question what is a good fastening is one not very easy to answer. It may be said generally that door-fastenings in ordinary houses are almost superfluously strong and window-fastenings dangerously weak. A door will often have an ordinary catch, a latch, a huge lock, bolts top and bottom, and a chain thick enough to hold an ironclad, while neighbouring windows, in reality quite as accessible, are furnished only with the ordinary slip catch, which, as most people know, a stout pocket-knife thrust between the sashes will generally unfasten. The older-fashioned and much safer screw through the two sashes is now but rarely seen, probably because it gives so much trouble in opening and shutting.

The other matter to which we have alluded is a more awkward one to handle. But as a prominent place is assigned to it in the Commissioner’s own Report, as it is dealt with at great length by the Superintendent whose division is specially affected, and, as a great many people know only too well the nuisance referred to, it seems to require some notice. Sir Edmund Henderson remarks that “the closing of certain places heretofore resorted to [by women of bad character] has had a tendency to throw additional numbers of them into the public streets, and to increase the annoyance consequent on their presence.” Superintendent Dunlop comments upon and supports this statement in the fullest manner. At midnight, he says, and from thence onward till 2 A.M., one side of the lower part of Regent Street, and the narrow strip of Piccadilly in front of the Criterion, become impassable from the vast number of disreputable promenaders. For the most part the police cannot interfere, because there is no technical disorder. Those who are taking part in the promenade naturally do not complain, while other passengers are only too anxious to get out of it as soon as possible. The proprietors of respectable places of refreshment in the neighbourhood are at their wit’s end, because it is practically impossible for them to preserve order, and their establishments get an undeserved bad name. It is, says the Superintendent, very justly, intolerable that respectable people should not be able to walk the streets without annoyance, and this they most assuredly cannot do at present. It used to be made an argument against a certain very well-known, and now closed, place of resort, that there were unedifying scenes in the street at the hour of its closing. The chief result of that closing appears to be that the unedifying scenes now go on for the best part of two hours over great part of one of the principal thoroughfares of London. In short, the aspect of the district described by Superintendent Dunlop must be admitted by every one who has had occasion to traverse it at the time to be simply a disgrace to the capital. The question of course is a difficult one in many ways. The amiable clergyman who is persuaded that the chief use of the Argyll Rooms was the hatching of burglaries will not be persuaded to regret their closing by any of the arguments alleged by Superintendent Dunlop. For it may be admitted that the hatching of burglaries on the pavement of Waterloo Place is, except as an exception, not very probable. But it certainly stands to reason that, so long as the law takes no direct steps to suppress a certain class of persons—putting aside for the moment the question of the possibility of their suppression—but merely hunts them out of certain resorts, they will go elsewhere. At present the one elsewhere in which they enjoy tolerable freedom from interference is the public street. Public-house keepers are sternly admonished not to “harbour” them; semi-public places, whither by a sort of convention nobody goes who objects to their society, are frowned upon and closed. But the streets, which might be supposed to be the particular sphere of operation of the guardians of public decency and morality, are free. Short of an actual row—which indeed occurs pretty frequently—the police cannot interfere, and all the elements of such a row are allowed to exist quietly, or rather noisily, ready for the spark that is to kindle it. Meanwhile the belated traveller who wishes to go from the Guards’ Monument northwards will do well to seek cunning byways, if he objects to uninvited caresses, and the meditative foreigner on his way to Leicester Square has a fine opportunity of considering the methods taken by the magistrates and police of moral Britain for the better prevention of scandals.

A TENOR’S DIARY.

PROBABLY in no artistic calling is success more pleasant and in every sense remunerative than in that of singing, and especially of operatic singing. We have heard it insisted upon by a well-known comedian that on the lyric stage acting ceases to be acting; that it is, so to speak, a mongrel entertainment; that the peculiar exigencies with regard to gesture and expression created by the music deprive the histrionic attempt of any true value, and so forth. The public, however, are not likely to take this view, nor can it be denied that there is a science of operatic acting, different it may be in details of technicality from the more usual form of acting, but in the estimation of amateurs of equal value and equal importance. Indeed, a person paradoxically inclined might support a contention that acting is of more importance on the lyric stage than singing, by quoting two or three well-known instances of Italian and German singers whose reputation and success have certainly been due more to their histrionic than their musical powers. It would of course be still easier to make a counter list of operatic singers in whom the

charm of voice and method has overcome their utter incapacity or indolence with regard to acting. It would be trite, but for the strange opinion of a theatrical expert above referred to, to say that the combination of the two gifts of musical and dramatic talent, assiduously cultivated, makes the singer. This combination, it is worth while to note, is more rare among tenor singers than among sopranos, contraltos, baritones, and basses—possibly for the mere reason that tenor singers seem likely to share the fate of the dodo. It was possessed, or rather acquired, by one great singer of our own time who is still living, and it seems to have been possessed by the great French tenor Roger, whose line of part was, in the heyday of his success, practically the same as Signor Mario's. Roger's *Carnet d'un Ténor*, just published (or rather republished, for its materials have appeared from time to time in the *Figaro*) in Paris, is full of curious anecdote and information; and, besides bearing unconscious witness to its author's attractiveness and accomplishments, has a special interest for people who are interested in the study or science of acting. M. Roger's road to success differed from that of the great tenor to whom we have referred in two special points. He began by being a light tenor at the Opéra Comique, and rose to be the first tenor at the Opéra-house of Paris; and he possessed by nature, to judge by his Diary, that histrionic talent which, in Signor Mario's case, was developed and brought to perfection by the exercise of an industry which illustrated the old proverb about genius and taking pains. M. Roger's career, so far as his connexion with the Opéra Comique and his subsequent leaving it for a larger stage go, was not unlike that of M. Capoul. M. Capoul has, in fact, done exactly what Roger did. He has, in Europe at least, abandoned the heroes of light French opera to assume such parts as Faust in M. Gounod's opera, and, on occasions, Raoul in *Les Huguenots*. In what degree his success can be compared with that of M. Roger is a question which can be determined only by amateurs or experts who have heard both singers.

Roger's first appearance in the part just referred to, Raoul in *Les Huguenots*, was one of the most striking and, one might add, the most trying, incidents in his career. He was in London in 1848, under an engagement with Messrs. Webster and Delafield to appear as a *primo tenore*; but his having to sing Raoul at a few hours' notice was naturally as unforeseen by his managers as by himself. The event is thus recorded in his Diary. "Thursday, August 3rd. *Dies albo sigillanda lapillo!* The *Huguenots* was advertised this morning for Mme. Viardot's benefit. At one o'clock Gruneisen came and told me that Mario was ill and might be unable to sing. He went away at four and came back to beg me in the name of the managers to take Mario's part, Raoul. I was thunderstruck. I observed that, as I had only just left the Opéra Comique, and was not yet enrolled on the staff of the Opéra, I had naturally not even rehearsed Raoul. Gruneisen not the less pressed his point, and I was compelled to make a hasty decision. I knew the score, but if I played the part I risked my future. Finally I undertook it, with the one reservation that I should sing it in French; for although I knew Italian well enough, three hours was a short time in which to master the words." Roger was seemingly too nervous to eat any dinner, and felt when he went on the stage "affreusement pâle sous mon rouge." The French words at first took the audience by surprise; but as the opera went on the tenor's success became more and more assured. "Dieu s'en mêle; tout marche supérieurement, et le terrible septuor du duel est bisé." Mme. Pauline Viardot (who sang the great duet in French) and Roger were both rapturously applauded, and after this duet received and, we regret to add, responded to three recalls. In the fifth act Roger forgot his part to some extent, but "j'ai remplacé quelques passages du chant par une pantomime noble et bien sentie." It is quite likely that the tenor's frank confession may be the first intimation of this curious fact to those who may remember his appearance on this occasion.

The next entry to this "day to be marked with a white stone" is headed by the ominous words "jour néfaste," which is curious as exhibiting that fine artistic conscientiousness of Roger, who had been singing in *Guillaume Tell*, to which allusion has already been made. "Je n'ai rien fait de honteux," he writes. "Je n'ai pas chanté faux. Pas un couac. Mais tout était étriqué, sans chaleur." He had gone through his part creditably, even in his own estimation, but he had not felt that he had really assumed "la peau du bonhomme," and he was accordingly discontented. The entry is curiously like some which are to be found in the diary of Macready, to whose histrionic method that of Roger seems to have been closely allied. One learns from other passages in the Diary that, like Macready, he felt the need of actually believing in the reality of every part which he assumed, though he at the same time held the views which are found in Hamlet's address to the players, and at greater length in Diderot's *Paradoxe sur le Comédien*. This feeling on the singer's part is curiously marked in a passage concerning his rendering of John of Leyden (a part which, with Meyerbeer's special sanction, he "created"), and it is worth noting that, like Macready, Roger recorded his successes and his failures, according to his own impression, with absolute impartiality:—"Je jouais le *Prophète*," Roger wrote on the 14th of September, 1851, ". . . Au quatrième acte j'ai été pris d'une hallucination singulière; je subissais un des vertiges fantastiques d'Hoffmann. La couronne en tête, le manteau impérial sur les épaules, je me suis cru, pendant un instant, véritablement prophète et roi. Oh! le bel art! et que je l'aime, ce théâtre, qui de nos royautes factices parvient à

nous en faire une réelle!" This, it will be admitted, is a not uninteresting record in itself, and has a special interest in connexion with the fact that Roger, much as he loved to feel himself the "personage" he was called on to play, held, as has been suggested, the same views as to the necessity of an actor's self-control which were admirably formulated by Diderot, and have more than once been endorsed in these columns. Shortly after the entry just given comes one which, at the risk of seeming to make too many quotations, we feel constrained to reproduce because it illustrates, as nothing else short of a careful reading of the *Carnet* could do, the truly artistic, one may even say the truly poetical, feeling and genius which was a striking element in the character of the great tenor. It was at Berlin that he experienced the strange and delightful sensation of being for the moment the person whose triumphs and sufferings he had to represent with voice and gesture; and it was at Dresden, a few weeks afterwards, that he wrote the passage we are about to quote. It is a description of a work which many writers great and small have attempted to describe; and to people who have read with varying feelings these various descriptions, its force and simplicity will probably recommend themselves. "Aussi," wrote M. Roger, "quand j'arrive devant la vierge de Raphaël, celle qu'on appelle la Madone de Sixte, tout en moi est satisfait. Elle vous arrête, cette grande femme au regard bon et fier, si bon, parce que c'est celui de la Mère, si fier à cause de l'enfant qui a l'air de trôner sur les bras qui le portent. Quant aux yeux de Jésus, rien n'en peut rendre la merveilleuse expression. Sans cesser d'être ceux d'un enfant, ils sont surtout les yeux du maître du monde." We must break off the quotation at this point to say that it is difficult to our mind to conceive a happier and more delicate description of perhaps the most wonderful expression that Raphael ever conveyed on his canvas. Yet to these words which we have quoted M. Roger has something to add. "Ils vont droit," he goes on, still speaking of those marvellous eyes, "dans les profondeurs de l'infini, qui alors s'y reflète. Ce sont deux temples ouverts que ces yeux! Il n'y a pas à dire, un Dieu est là!"

After the consideration and quotation of this passage, which it is not too much to call a brilliant piece of writing, we feel a certain disinclination to revert to the daily record as it is of M. Roger's operative experiences in Dresden, where, by the way, he met the still celebrated actor Emil Devrient; nor are we disposed to end our remarks on Roger's journal with this passage. It shows, to our thinking, conclusively, that he had the great artistic talent, we might even say genius, which, as it happened, he devoted to the lyric stage, but which, if he had not possessed a tenor voice, would have made its mark in some other artistic calling. In these few observations on a remarkable book we have given but a faint idea of its interest and value.

RUSSIAN POWER IN THE NORTH PACIFIC.

THE remarkable article in the current number of the *Edinburgh Review* on naval power in the Pacific, seems scarcely as yet to have awakened the interest it deserves. It certainly merits attention, as the subject is an important one, and as it is treated in a masterly manner by the writer, who first points out the enormous proportions which British trade in the Pacific has now assumed, next gives an account of the manner in which Russia has gradually acquired a most valuable portion of the north-eastern coast of Asia, and then describes, in part from personal observation, the great strategical strength of the position she now holds. The author is no alarmist, and writes in a tone of singular moderation, sometimes indicating rather than stating the dangers to which the commerce of this country might be exposed in the event of a war. Unfortunately the facts which he brings forward speak for themselves only too plainly, and it seems clear—as has indeed several times been said—that, in the event of a war, Russia might be able to do terrible harm to the trade of Great Britain in the Pacific. Her strength is all of recent growth, as, at the time of the Crimean war, she was able to do nothing, although the exploits of the British navy in the North Pacific were assuredly not calculated to frighten a bold foe. First, there was the repulse of Petropaulowski, then the affair of Castries Bay, respecting which, we may observe, the writer in the *Edinburgh* is misinformed. British men-of-war sighted Russian ships at this place, but, for some reason which has never been clearly explained, did not engage them. After this a Russian frigate managed to escape from the not very vigorous British pursuit through the shallow water of the northern entrance to the Amoor. Nothing whatever beyond capturing some officers and men belonging to a vessel which had been wrecked did the British navy achieve against the Russians in the North Pacific; but the latter were well content to escape, and were without the means of acting on the offensive. Very different would be the case now should war break out. Russia has increased her territory on the North Pacific coast, and has acquired a magnificent harbour, where, of course, she has placed a garrison which, it seems, is being strengthened. In this place she possesses an excellent base for naval operations, and as she has another very good one and several smaller ones in the long line of coast which she holds, it is clear that she now has a position in the North Pacific which would enable her in a war to

give this country a great deal of trouble, and possibly to inflict irreparable injury on our commerce.

How she acquired this position is briefly and well told in the pages of the *Edinburgh Review*. It is the usual story of noiseless activity, of slow, but unceasing, aggression. The Russians gradually advanced to the coast, and, after their fashion, made a treaty and disregarded it. At the time of the Crimean war a large portion of the lower Amoor nominally belonged to China, the Russian boundary running some distance to the north of it; but the Russians had established themselves at its mouth and on the coast to the south. Having thus, according to the old maxim, nine points of the law on its side, the Russian Government waited in its usual patient manner until the opportunity came, and then proceeded to secure the remaining fraction. In 1860 they were able to legalize the position they had obtained by fraud and disregard of their own promises. The writer in the *Edinburgh Review* says:—

In 1858, by the treaty of Aigun, China ceded to Russia the left bank of the great river down to the confluence of the Usuri, and below that point both banks. This treaty was afterwards disavowed by the Chinese authorities, but their difficulties with France and England, whose armies occupied Peking, enabled General Ignatiev to obtain a second treaty in November, 1860, which confirmed his sovereign in possession of the territories above named, and more minutely defined the boundaries. "This acquisition of territory," said a writer in this Journal [*Edinburgh Review*, No. cclxxviii., p. 307] eight years ago, "magnificent as it was in the vast extent of country thereby added to the Russian dominions, had its chief value—for the moment at least—in the fact of its conferring the long-coveted advantage of accessible harbours on the Pacific in a comparatively temperate latitude, where navigation is impeded by ice for at the most three or four months during the year. The southernmost gulf of the newly ceded region, lying in latitude 43° N., contains numerous fine harbours and inlets." The river Tumen was now the southern boundary of Russia in these parts, and divided its province from the kingdom of Corea. The territory has been finally rounded off and completed, as it were, by the treaty with Japan, made in 1875, by which the latter cedes to Russia, in exchange for the Kurile islands, the southern portion of the great island of Sakhalin.

The value of the territory thus acquired is, from every point of view, great; but its value to Russia, as a naval Power, it would perhaps be impossible to overrate. In the long strip of the coast between the mouth of the Amoor and that of the Tumen are frequent harbours, some of which are not only secure as anchorages but also defensible. Principal amongst them are Olga Bay and Vladivostok. Olga Bay has been described by Captain Bax, who visited it in the *Ducre*, as having an outer and an inner harbour, the outer one being quite safe. Good as this haven is, however, it is surpassed by Vladivostok, of which the following account is given by the writer in the *Edinburgh Review*:—

Vladivostok, or the "Dominion of the East," lies in the deep bight formed in the coast line some seventy or eighty miles from the mouth of the Tumen river. We speak from personal experience when we say that this harbour is one of the finest in the world. There is an outer anchorage, which is a fairly snug roadstead, called the Eastern Bosphorus. From this runs direct to the right the inner harbour, called the Golden Horn, after a less convenient, if more celebrated, port in Europe. This is about three miles long, and not much above half a mile wide. The largest ships can ride within a few yards of the shore. The peculiar form of the port renders its defence by torpedoes and batteries easy. Several of the latter were erected in 1877, and it is reported recently that a considerable number of torpedoes have been constructed in Japan for conveyance to this and other places in Maritime Siberia. . . . The civil population is not large, and is composed principally of Chinese and Manchoes, who are credited by the Russian officers with being, in general, fugitives from justice. A large number of female convicts from European Russia are settled here. The garrison consists of an *équipage* or "ship's company" of seamen, which answers to a regiment of soldiers, and amounts to about two thousand five hundred men. According to the latest accounts this garrison, with the seamen stationed there, has been notably strengthened. These not only supply the force necessary for the defence of the place; they also form the crews of the Siberian division of the fleet. It is believed that the harbour is only frozen over from late in December to the middle of February.

It is clear then that the Russians possess in this district a port which can scarcely be surpassed; but the best port on a remote coast might not be of much value as a naval station, if it could not be supplied with coal from the interior, as a blockade might intercept a great proportion of the coal ships bound for it. Fortunately for the Russians it is perfectly possible to obtain coal for Vladivostok. Near to it is a seam of coal, but this, it seems, is not of good quality. Further inland, however, there is excellent coal, and though this is at some distance, transport is made easy, according to the writer in the *Edinburgh*, by direct river communication, and the harbour will therefore be supplied with the great essential for modern naval warfare, and will form with the harbour of Olga Bay and with the other lesser ones as perfect a base for naval operations as admirals and captains can desire.

These ports have, it is true, one great disadvantage. They are closed during a portion of the year by ice, so that fleets would be for a time shut up in them, while commanders who remained too late at sea would run the risk of finding their retreat cut off. It has been seen, however, that, so far as regards Vladivostok, that period is probably a short one, and that the harbour is in all likelihood open for ten months of the year. With so short a close-time great activity would be possible, and it would be difficult to exaggerate the harm which might be done to British trade in the Pacific by vessels issuing from this port. It is scarcely necessary to refer to the oft-cited case of the *Alabama*; but when the mischief which that one vessel was able to do is remembered, some idea may be formed of what a number of fleet cruisers could effect. Of course they would be chased by British men-of-war; but the Pacific is a wide sea to chase vessels in, and too often

might the hunt be fruitless. Of course, also, the ports would be blockaded; but there would be great difficulties in the way of a blockading squadron, and these we will endeavour to indicate, supplementing slightly the facts brought forward by the writer in the *Edinburgh Review*.

In the first place there are the summer fogs, which are very common on the north-eastern coast, and would, as he justly observes, tell in favour of the blockaded vessels. If, indeed, these were commanded by men ready to run some risk, their escape during a fog would be extremely probable. The writer is mistaken in supposing that the escape of the ships seen in Castries Bay was due to fog, for, as has already been stated, they were sighted, but were not attacked. That, however, he is perfectly correct in saying that fogs are frequent in summer we can testify from experience of these seas. There is, moreover, another difficulty for a blockading squadron on this coast. Even in summer time gales are frequent, and a gale is a sad enemy to vessels watching a port. Further, there would be the great difficulty of obtaining coal, and this would prove, if not insuperable, probably a difficulty of the gravest kind. As is pointed out in the *Edinburgh Review*, our nearest coaling station in the event of a war would be Hong Kong, distant 1,600 miles from Vladivostok. We need hardly observe that steamships are infinitely less independent than the old sailing ships were which could carry provisions for a long period, and only required occasional supplies of water. If ample means were given by Government, it would no doubt be possible by great energy and great care to keep up the supplies; but the task would be an arduous one, and very serious would be the position of a commander who found that his coal was running short, and that he must choose between abandoning the blockade and incurring what might prove to be terrible risk.

The grave nature of the results which might follow if an effective blockade could not be maintained, and if Russian squadrons could take the sea, can hardly be over-estimated, and, lamentable as it seems, nothing whatever has been done to prevent an enemy from carrying by a *coup de main* the only place we hold which would serve as a base for operations in the North Pacific. Coal is to be found at the mines of Nanaimo, in Vancouver's Island, and a small dockyard is maintained at Esquimalt, but this appears to be almost defenceless. Respecting it the writer in the *Edinburgh Review* is able to bring forward the evidence of General Selby Smyth, commanding the military forces in Canada, who, in a recently published report, says:—

In the event of war, Russia would be in a position to harass not only Hong-kong and the China and Japan trade, but to send a squadron across the ocean in thirty days to attack the western sea-port of the Dominion. Our security in the Pacific requires Esquimalt to be well guarded; our fleets must keep the sea, if necessary, in all weathers, and they cannot do so without coal. That important element is in ample stock and of prime quality at Nanaimo. The British navy is scattered over the Pacific, and there were no works of defence at Vancouver till last year; no forts for the protection of our coal; nothing but British prestige and a few companies of militia at Victoria and up the Fraser river.

Some heed should surely be given to this warning, as also to the possibility of England's having to undertake armed mediation in the event of a war between Russia and China, and requiring in consequence great naval strength. Want of space, however, prevents us from entering on this subject, and for the same reason we must leave unnoticed many of the important facts adduced in the article in the *Edinburgh Review*. Those which we have mentioned certainly suffice to prove that the writer makes out a very strong case, and shows how dangerous to this country is the strength of Russia on the north-western coast of the North Pacific. Any one who wishes to realize what her increase of strength has been, has only to compare the menacing position she now holds with that which she held at the time of the Crimean war. Then, although our squadron in the Chinese waters was not a very powerful one, and was certainly not commanded by men of great energy and enterprise, the Russians were only too glad to escape in safety. Now a strong fleet would be required to blockade their ports, and to prevent them from doing incalculable harm to our commerce. Even those who most condemn alarmist cries can hardly deny that the change in relative position is an extraordinary one, and that the present strength of Russia in the North Pacific is of grave import to this country.

A DECADE OF RAILWAYS.

IN making their General Report to the Board of Trade on the Financial Position of the Railways of the United Kingdom Messrs. Calcraft and Giffen have this year extended it to include a comparison of the last ten years, from 1869 to 1879. These years, they tell us, "embrace a full cycle of prosperity and adversity, with the exception, perhaps, that in the year 1869 railways had already begun to improve a little from previous depression, while 1879 has been absolutely the worst year of the recent depressed period." As would be expected, the cycles of depression and revival in the railway world are analogous to those in the mercantile world generally; and it would seem, so far as statistics can show us, that there is fair reason to hope that a substantial improvement in railway matters is at hand. Indeed, the increase in the value of shares of many of the most prominent railways shows that the public has begun to realize this important fact. Since "1879 has been absolutely the worst year of the recent de-

pressed period," it is of the greatest interest to see in what way that year differs to its immediate predecessor 1878, and this is very concisely shown by the admirable summary table that Messrs. Calcraft and Giffen have supplied in their Report. By this we see that while there is an increase of 18,458,315*l.* of capital in 1879 as compared with 1878, making an increase of 217*l.* per mile of railway open, there is a decrease in gross receipts amounting to 1,085,971*l.*, and at the same time a decrease in working expenditure of 1,144,095*l.*, by which means an increase, astonishing to relate, of 58,124*l.* is the nett result. It will be seen, therefore, that it is through the decrease in working expenditure alone in 1879 that the nett earnings show an increase over the year 1878, and this in the face of the fact, as pointed out later on in this Report, that the same quantity of work done now is more costly than it was ten years ago. It would be interesting to the general and non-railway public to have before them at the same time the statistics of the number of accidents that had taken place during the same period, which were clearly due to reduction of, or overworking of, the staff of a railway Company; but we are unable to afford those particulars which might have anything but a reassuring effect upon the minds of travellers. This would not be worthy of much notice if the reduction had only been between the two years 1878 and 1879, but it is not so. The reduction of working expenses has been going on for some years; and, as Messrs. Calcraft and Giffen remark, there is in 1879 "a similar but rather greater reduction" than in 1878. If we turn to the table of work expenses during the last ten years, we find, however, that the increase is that of 53 per cent. upon an increase of capital in the same duration of time of 38 per cent. This, as we said before, is largely accounted for by the fact that work done now is more costly than it was ten years ago. When next we come to the table giving the comparison of the rates of interest and dividend paid on ordinary, guaranteed, and preferential capitals and loans and debenture stock for the year 1879, we find that 62 per cent. of the total capital pays from above 4 to 13 per cent., and 21·5 per cent. of the capital returns interest at from below 1 to 3 per cent., leaving 16 per cent. without interest. In the guaranteed capital we find that 52 per cent. of the total capital pays from above 4 to 10 per cent. and 46·5 per cent. of the capital from above 1 to 3 per cent., leaving 1·5 per cent. which pays nil or under 1 per cent. The preferential capital again shows that 54·8 per cent. of the capital pays from 4 to 12 per cent. and 40 per cent. returns from 1 to 3 per cent., whilst 5·1 per cent. returns from nothing to 1 per cent., the defaulting capital in this case being as much as 5 per cent. On loans and debenture stock the interest is lower on account of the security, and naturally the percentages are swollen; for instance, 98·6 per cent. of the capital pays from above 3 to 6 per cent., and the remaining fraction returns from nil to over 1 per cent. If the reader has followed this dry statement of facts with ordinary care, he will see the value of railway property generally, and although in his particular case he may have been sufficiently unfortunate in his ventures, he may yet be led to think that railways are an exceedingly profitable investment for public money; for while 22 per cent. of the capital invested in them renders no interest, the remaining 78 per cent. yields from 1 to 13 per cent., the larger portion varying from 4 to 7 per cent. Messrs. Calcraft and Giffen then proceed to give us their statistics for the ten years from 1869 to 1879, in which they show that the increase of mileage is much less than the increase of capital, and that the increase of receipts is much greater than the increase of capital, while, strange to say, there has been a large increase of working expenditure as taking 1869 against 1879. "The final result is," say they, "that, in spite of this large increase of capital, and also of the still larger proportionate increase of working expenditure, amounting to 54 per cent., the return per cent. on the increased capital is just about as great in 1879 as the return on the smaller capital in 1869. Railway shareholders are on the average no worse off on the face of the figures than they were in 1869, while the figures themselves, allowing for the increase of nominal capital only, and for the circumstance of trade having begun to revive from a previous depression in 1868, while 1879 was the lowest point of the depression, may be held to denote a real improvement." After having shown that there is a steady diminution of the proportion of ordinary capital to the total capital of railway Companies during this period, and an increase of the guaranteed and preferential capital, the reporters proceed to the consideration of traffic receipts. Here, taking the ten years range as before, the first thing they notice is the steadiness of the proportion between passengers and goods receipts, the advantage being on the side of goods to the extent of from 9 to 13 per cent. As to passenger traffic, however, the one important fact is the vast increase in third-class traffic. "Whilst in the receipts from first-class passengers in 1875 there has been a steady decline from 4,725,000*l.* to 3,888,000*l.*; and from second-class passengers of from 4,925,000*l.* in 1870 to 3,459,000*l.* in 1879; those from third-class passengers have increased from 6,837,000*l.* to 13,869,000*l.* in 1879, which is more than twice the figure for 1869; and, as the Report says, "the increase in third-class traffic alone in that period"—from 1869 to 1879—is, in fact, nearly equal to the amount still received from first and second class traffic together. "For good or for evil," says the Report, "and apart from any explanation of the causes, the tendency of third-class traffic to increase, while first and second class traffic remains stationary or declines, has been most distinctly marked during the last ten years." This judicious reticence as to "any explanation of the causes," especially when the hint is thrown out that there is a chance of

evil influence in this third-class increasing traffic, is certainly disappointing; but that such is the fact is sufficient for railway Companies to take example from the Midland Railway, and whilst abolishing the second-class, to improve the third-class accommodation. Minerals, as regards goods-traffic, show an increase of 63 per cent. in the period of ten years, whilst general merchandise gives 44 per cent. and live stock 29 per cent. increase. A large portion of the Report is devoted to the working expenses, which, as we are told, "is perhaps the most interesting question to the railway shareholder," and the conclusion comes to is that they have largely increased, because the same quantity of work done now is more costly than formerly. It is shown that the increase is due almost exclusively to the traffic expenses, which, although there is a tendency for them to diminish, though slowly, it remains a fact "that, with the exception of this item, the working expenses of railways are substantially, in proportion to the work done, the same in 1879 as they were in 1869, after having been subjected in the meanwhile to violent fluctuations." It is anticipated by Messrs. Calcraft and Giffen that the proportions of expenses to receipts will be less in 1880 than 1879 as has been the case between 1879 and 1878. The keynote of the Report is the reduction of working expenses, which has worked such marvels as to actually show an increase in a year absolutely the worst of the recent depressed period. Could this be once effected, as indeed the Report holds out some hopes it will, railways might almost consider themselves an insured success, but working expenses are necessary evils, and their reduction may not altogether tend to the safety of the public.

REVIEWS.

BUXTON'S HANDBOOK TO POLITICAL QUESTIONS.*

THE plan of Mr. Buxton's little book, a worthy successor to his father's manual, is a rational and useful one. His purpose is to exhibit, in as clear and impartial a manner as possible, the arguments on both sides of the most agitated questions of domestic policy. No doubt it is hard for one man not to be biased by his own preference in setting over against one another the reasons of contending parties and schools; and of this Mr. Buxton confesses himself fully aware. Nevertheless his method makes it fairly practicable to hold an even balance, and he appears to us to have succeeded remarkably well. He does not attempt to weigh or discuss the arguments marshalled for and against the various proposals brought forward for examination; but after a colourless introductory statement of the facts necessary for the understanding of the arguments, he states them without further comment in the most compendious form to which he can reduce them. In order to exhibit his procedure distinctly, it may be well to quote in full the treatment of some one point. We take the question of "Illiterate Voters," which occupies rather more than a page under the general head of "The Ballot":—

It is probable that one point connected with the Ballot will receive some attention; namely, the question whether the illiterate voter who solicits assistance in recording his vote, should be allowed to continue to receive the help of the officer presiding at the polling booth.

It is contended that this assistance should be withdrawn, on the grounds:—

- 1.—That a man so illiterate as to be unable to mark a ballot-paper correctly, is presumably too ignorant to be worthy of a vote.
- 2.—That the desire of being able to record his vote will be an incentive to acquire education.
- 3.—That it is possible for the voter who claims assistance to make known which way he votes, and so the door is left ajar to bribery and intimidation, more especially as the illiterate voter is likely to be amenable to corrupt influences.
- 4.—That illiterate voters are induced to plead illiteracy so that the briber may know which way they vote.

On the other hand it is contended that the illiterate voter who solicits assistance from the presiding officer, should be entitled to receive it, on the grounds:—

- 1.—That he represents property, and is as much interested in good government as the well educated voter; while if he were deprived of the assistance necessary to him in recording his vote, he would be practically disfranchised.
- 2.—That if he has to record his vote without assistance, he will give it in a haphazard manner, and it may be recorded for the wrong candidate, or be lost from infringement of the rules of voting—either result would be an anomaly.
- 3.—That as the presiding officer and those attending in the booths are bound to secrecy, and as proper care is taken to prevent exposure, no infringement of secrecy is possible.
- 4.—That as the blind, and those physically incapable of marking the voting paper are assisted by the presiding officer, the uneducated, who are equally unfortunate, should receive the same assistance.

This statement does justice to both sides in a small compass. At first sight *illiteracy* struck us as an ungainly word, but we find that there is good eighteenth-century authority for it. Mr. Buxton does not seem to have followed any fixed rule in his choice of the sort of arguments to be presented. Most often he gives only such as are actually current, or, at any rate, not unlikely to be met with in public discussion. Thus on the question of woman's suffrage a pretty long list of reasons is given both for and against, but the greater part of them strike one as superficial. But the answer to criticism on this ground is obvious—namely,

* *A Handbook to Political Questions of the Day: being the Arguments on either Side.* By Sydney C. Buxton. London: John Murray. 1880.

that such are the topics which speakers and writers on both sides have hitherto preferred to use. Nor is the fact very hard to explain. Thorough discussion of the question would involve a much deeper consideration of the theory and principles of representative government than most people would care to undertake, or an average audience would be likely to follow. Sometimes, however, Mr. Buxton does not confine himself to the reasons which are commonly given, but adds others which, though more or less probable in themselves, and exercising more or less real influence on men's opinions and actions, are little put forward, as being unpopular or in other ways not convenient for political controversy. A good example of reasons of this class is afforded by these against Disestablishment:

11.—On the other hand, many are possessed with the idea that the disestablished Church body being left, as it would be, with extended and uncontrolled powers, and having at its disposal a large capital, would inevitably tend to become an exclusively, or predominantly, clerical body. That all who differed from her dictum would be driven out of the fold, and the Church would split up into innumerable fragments; intolerance and strife would be increased and perpetuated.

12.—That the clergy would tend to become more and more mere servants of their congregations, and much freedom of thought, liberty of ideas, and elevation of mind, would be suppressed and lost.

13.—And that the connection of Church and State is the best guarantee that the religion of the country will be kept broad and comprehensive; while it secures a certain amount of liberty and freedom from ecclesiastical tyranny and dogmatism.

14.—(By some.) That the existence of such a wealthy, powerful, and independent body, as the Church would become if disestablished, might be dangerous to the Commonwealth.

Occasionally, too, lines of argument are traced on a special point with an express intimation that it has not yet been much discussed.

One of the most interesting heads is that of "Land Laws"; the arguments are as well given as in other parts of the book, but some of the introductory statements are loose. It is said that "by the law of entail a landowner can so tie up his land that it cannot be sold, or seized, or lessened in size for a period comprising the lifetimes of any number of persons actually in existence at the time the will was made, and until the yet unborn child of one of these attains the age of twenty-one." The only "law of entail," properly speaking, is the *Statute de donis*, as modified in its effect, first by an elaborate system of fictitious proceedings, and subsequently by the Fines and Recoveries Act. Now this is only a part of the law by which a strict settlement of land, such as has been common in this country for about two centuries, is made possible. It is not so much the power of creating estates tail as that of creating estates for life which is essential to a family settlement. Then Mr. Buxton speaks of "the time the will was made," as if arrangements of this kind could be effected only by will, whereas they may equally well be made, and quite as often are, by the disposition of living persons; and the statement of the time for which alienation may be restrained, though perhaps it comes near enough to the usual result for popular purposes, is by no means accurate. Shortly there follows a sentence in these terms: "The power to let the land for a long term of years on strict conditions, though not entail, possesses some of the features of entail, and may be here considered." We do not exactly understand what Mr. Buxton means; surely not the ordinary building lease for ninety-nine years. Nor do we find that anything is specially considered in his reasons on either side which throws any light upon his meaning in this point. The last reason on the side of opposition to change is also rather curious:—

15.—Many who are in favour of the abolition of entail, consider that existing entails, where the settlements have already begun to take effect, must be left intact, on the ground that to interfere with them would be an unjust encroachment on the rights and prospects of the remainder-men.

We did not know that anybody had gone so far as to propose the abrogation of existing settlements, which would be mildly described as "an unjust encroachment." Either you must compensate the remainder-men at the expense of the estate, in which case the settlement is not really abolished, but settled land is turned into settled money by an extension of a process already familiar to conveyancers; or, if you do not provide compensation, you are simply taking away the remainder-man's property and giving it to the tenant for life. One is tempted to suspect that there is a little confusion in Mr. Buxton's mind—it is likely enough to be so in the minds of even well-informed laymen—between proposals for abolishing or greatly cutting down the power of creating limited interests in land and proposals like those of Lord Cairns, directed to the different object of reconciling limited interests with good husbandry by giving the limited owner increased powers of management. This latter class of changes in the existing rules of law, being not fundamental but of an administrative kind, might, without any injustice, be applied to settlements already made. Under the head of Registration, which comes immediately afterwards, it is a rather surprising omission that the experience of Scotland and Ireland as to registration of deeds, and of the Australian colonies as to registration of title, finds no place in the arguments.

The section on "Local Self-Government" is disappointingly short. It consists only of the following series of general propositions and brief comment:—

It is proposed to concede larger powers of Local Self-government throughout the country, on the grounds:—

1.—That centralisation is deadening and demoralising.

2.—That a locality will do better, and more economically for itself, than which is required, than any central body.

3.—That the nation is now sufficiently civilised to be allowed full self-government.

4.—That a highly civilised country is continually requiring more, not less government. New rights and new duties spring up; and these more and more tend to outstrip the powers of supervision of the central body.

5.—That the present boundaries, divisions, and districts are complicated and anomalous; the existing duties, powers, and mode of election of the different local bodies or individuals greatly and confusedly vary; and all require simplification and consolidation.

6.—That in consequence of the confusion of areas and authorities, the burdens of local taxation are unequally borne.

The above arguments seem to be generally accepted as conclusive that something should be done; while there is difference of opinion on the question of the best way of granting more local self-government; in deciding what is to be the unit from which the rest shall diverge; and how far the different bodies should be representative or no.

Mr. Buxton, however, may fairly say that in reflecting the present unformed state of opinion on the whole matter he has done as much as he can reasonably be expected to do.

The licensing law is very fully treated; free licensing, increased restriction on the present lines, the Permissive Bill, local option, the Gothenburg system, and Sunday closing, have each a separate head assigned to them, where persons in search of an argument on either side can hardly fail to find something to suit them. Against the Permissive Bill this point is neatly made:—"That if the principle is conceded that the ratepayers of a given district have the right to forbid a trade or calling of which they disapprove (though the trade may be perfectly lawful elsewhere), logically they could claim a right to forbid unpopular places of religious or political resort to be opened." The approximate symmetry of opposing arguments which Mr. Buxton generally observes is seriously departed from when we come to the question of Sunday opening of museums and picture galleries. Eight reasons are given for the innovation, and only three against. Possibly Mr. Buxton had begun to find strict neutrality monotonous by the time he arrived at this point. Or perhaps he thought it inartistic by excess of symmetry, after the manner of a strange little book we have seen on the rules of drawing the human figure, in which the draughtsman is recommended to avoid an equal quantity of opposing limbs. So it is, however, that the Ayes have it in point of numbers by eight to three, and in point of quality the reasons for the Noes are decidedly weak. The first is the common Sabbatarian reason, which, as has been pointed out over and over again, amounts to saying that for Englishmen to look at pictures on Sunday would be a breach of a commandment given to Hebrews not to work on Saturday. The second is the Continental Sunday; to which the answer is that the differences between an English and a Continental Sunday do not depend on museums being open or shut, but on the general habits and manners of society. Of course the Continental Sunday is not the same everywhere. There are countries, the Netherlands for instance, where, while the public allowance of recreation strikes an even balance between the rigour of Scotland and the laxity of France, the amount of churchgoing can bear no comparison with either of these countries or with England. The third reason is that Sunday opening of museums "would involve a large amount of work on Sunday on the part of the custodians of these buildings, and it is unfair to demand such labour from some merely to give pleasure to others." Mr. Buxton has forgotten what must to a statesman be the strongest argument against present change—namely, that without entering into the abstract merits of the question, it is clear that such a change ought not to be adopted without the manifestation of a strong preponderance of popular feeling in its favour, involving the discussion of the details of arrangements which are not less worthy of careful consideration and adjustment than such a weighty matter as the fashion of rabbit-traps. We are very far from the possibility of any such investigation, and in the present divided state of public opinion the change can hardly be effected without grave risks of scandal, both moral and material.

Purists in the doctrine of self-government and political independence might possibly object to Mr. Buxton's array of ready-made arguments that it will save people the trouble of thinking for themselves. It appears to us at least as likely to put matter for thought into the heads of those who are accustomed to follow party cries without thinking. Partisans constantly neglect or actively conceal the fact that on most seriously debated questions there are serious and valid arguments on either side. And a work which exhibits this fact in a striking form, being at the same time and for that very reason a useful book of reference for party speakers and writers, is not to be despised as an instrument of political education.

SHELLEY'S PROSE WORKS.*

THE only fault we are disposed to find with Mr. Forman in his conduct of these important volumes is his treatment of Shelley's correspondence. Letters form a sort of *tertium quid*; they seem to be neither verse nor prose, and their place is properly found in illustrating the biography of the writer. But Mr. Forman has succumbed to several temptations in according to certain of Shelley's letters a place among his prose works. The Geneva correspondence, published in Shelley's lifetime, could hardly be

* *The Prose Works of Percy Bysshe Shelley*. Edited by Harry Buxton Forman. 4 vols. Reeves & Turner.

omitted in reprinting the *Six Weeks' Tour*; but there, we think, Mr. Forman should have stopped, unless indeed he was prepared to edit all existing letters of Shelley. As it is, he has gone too far and not far enough. He has so enlarged the section of correspondence given by Mrs. Shelley in 1840, that the sixty-eight letters printed in that year have increased to one hundred and twenty-seven; but he has left untouched the great mass of letters in Hogg's biography and those in the *Shelley Memorials*. It may be, though he does not say so, that difficulties of copy-right stood in his way. We cannot, however, help thinking that he should have contented himself for the present with three instead of four volumes, and have waited until a complete collection of the letters, in volumes uniform with these, could be produced. Perhaps it would have been better still to have waited until all the letters could be incorporated into that authoritative life of the poet which yet remains unwritten.

In all other respects, however, these volumes seem to us to be as excellent as they are handsome; they certainly supply us with materials such as have hitherto been absolutely wanting for the realization of Shelley's early energy and ambition. It is, perhaps, not generally known that, besides the two wild romances called *Zastrozzi* and *St. Irvyne*, Shelley published no less than nine prose works, mainly pamphlets, before his poetical career had well begun. These little books, several of them anonymous, had become so excessively rare, that when Shelley began to be a theme for curious bibliography, scarcely any of them could be found. The Argus eyes of the collectors have at last searched all holes and corners to such purpose, that only one, the *Address to the People on the Death of the Princess Charlotte*, is still missing, and this, fortunately, has been restored from an early reprint. But, although the others exist, only unique copies are known of most of them, and some of these in private collections. Accordingly Mr. Forman's volumes reveal to the public pages written by one of the greatest of our poets which were previously as inaccessible as any treasures in the whole of our literature.

The positive value of these political and religious pamphlets is not very great, but they throw most important light on their author's biography. For instance, so much has been said and speculated about *The Necessity of Atheism*, that revolutionary brochure for the circulating rather than the writing of which Shelley was expelled from Oxford, that it is very interesting to be able at last to read it, and to decide for ourselves what were its actual inflammatory powers. The main import of all the anti-theological utterances in this and subsequent volumes may be summed up in the position that belief and unbelief are not moral but intellectual qualities of the mind, and that it is as vain to punish a man for not believing a certain dogma as to treat him as a criminal for having straight hair or being colour-blind. Many of Shelley's remarks in this connexion have lost their startling character, and are now commonplaces to all thinking minds. Others of course are still, and always will be, crude, violent, and needless. His political treatises are still less interesting, in themselves, than his religious ones, but they illustrate a very amusing episode in his career. Shelley, at the age of twenty, threw himself with the generous indiscretion of boyhood into the arms of the Irish Home-rulers of those days, and went off to Dublin, accompanied by his child-wife. Immediately on his arrival, he was fired with the design of "awakening in the minds of the Irish poor a knowledge of their real condition," which he actually carried out, with his accustomed fiery energy, by the composition of a five-penny book, *An Address to the Irish People*, which went to press only one week after his arrival, he having spent that time in making himself "more accurately acquainted with the state of the public mind, on those great topics of grievances which induced me to select Ireland as a theatre, the widest and fairest, for the operations of the determined friend of religious and political freedom." Mr. D. F. MacCarthy has collected a mass of very curious information on the subject of this campaign of Shelley's, in the course of which the young poet astonished the Irish by his rapidity of public utterance, his nimble pen, and his quick assent to all demands upon his purse. He is, moreover, recorded to have written and published "a very beautiful poem," the proceeds of which, amounting to one hundred pounds, he presented to a Mr. Finnerty, a needy patriot; but one of the curiosities of Shelley bibliography is that this "beautiful poem," which sold so exceedingly well, is now not forthcoming.

It is natural that the reader's attention should first be drawn to those features of these volumes before us which present an absolute novelty; but he becomes gradually aware that, with the exception of a series of singularly eloquent notes on ancient sculpture, hitherto only published in excerpts, he already possessed all of Shelley's prose writing that has any claim to be called classical. The author of *Alastor* was even in 1815 so thoroughly a singer by temperament that he found it ink-some to produce his ideas in any form but that natural to a poet—namely, verse. During the last five years of his life, years fertile in composition almost beyond parallel, he abandoned prose almost entirely as a vehicle for his ideas. It has often been said that Shelley was tending, at the time of his death, towards philosophy and politics, and that he would probably soon have ceased to write verse altogether. This is one of those rash statements, indulged in by loose theoretical thinkers, which will not bear the test of comparison with facts. On the contrary, it was in his adolescence, from 1810 to 1815, that his intellect was entirely absorbed by metaphysical reflections upon religion, social order,

and politics. In *Queen Mab* the art of poetry is completely subordinated to this didactic tendency. With *Alastor*, in 1816, begins the practice of poetry, not for some ulterior end, but for its own sake, and from this point the merely doctrinaire side of Shelley's mind passes more and more from sight, existing always to the end, but kept in the background and not allowed to protrude officiously. At the moment of his drowning he had in hand three important poems, *The Zucca*, *The Triumph of Life*, and *Charles I.*, which are all three sufficiently preserved to show us that the poet was, so far from flagging in his ascent, at the very zenith of his powers and of his ardour as an artist, while the lyrics of the year 1822 are more perhaps than any others which he wrote, steeped in pure light and colour, and dedicated without reserve to personal sensation and experience.

We are bound therefore to consider Shelley's prose as the fragmentary and accidental expression of a nature that was still seeking a more natural and characteristic form of utterance. It belongs to the first youth of his mind, and is chiefly interesting to us because it contains the earliest exercises of his maturity. The extraordinary fertility of Shelley's brief life may easily blind us to the fact that he was not precocious as a poet. From early childhood he practised verse; but it was not until his twenty-fourth year that he began to display his peculiar gifts of language in poetry. The short pieces at the end of the volume of 1816 show him still faltering, though they sound the prelude of all the immortal music which was to follow. But a year earlier than this his prose was as supple, dignified, and harmonious as it was ever to be; and, in point of fact, became him at that moment, and for that moment only, much better than his verse.

The only important exception to the entire abandonment of prose in Shelley's later years is the *Defence of Poetry*, written in February 1821, in answer to an ingenious attack on modern verse by Peacock. This essay, moreover, is the only prose work which Shelley finished after his boyhood, the energy that led him so vividly to the close of his great poems seeming to turn into languor when the metre was not there to support it. The *Defence of Poetry* is a work which may be commended to all young writers of prose as a model, the more that its peculiar beauties are not those now in vogue among us. It may be broadly said that Shelley's prose was as ardent and as effusive as was possible in a generation that had not sat at the feet of De Quincey. In other words, it is the most highly-coloured and delicately adorned specimen of the prose of a generation whose main object in writing was neither ornament nor colour. In reading Shelley's periods we feel that we are still listening to a writer of the school of the eighteenth century; the difference is specific, and follows from the nature of the man, not generic and due to the temper of the age. Burke is the writer of whom Shelley's prose reminds us most; from Burke he learned the stately balance of phrases, the articulated sentences, which progress, each duly supported by its predecessor. To us who have been dazzled by De Quincey, electrified by Mr. Carlyle, smothered in rose-leaves by Mr. Ruskin, and debauched by the tasteless audacities of a thousand minor writers, the style which seemed too brilliant to Shelley's contemporaries, now may appear cold and subdued in its simplicity and grace. But we have but to submit ourselves to the charm to feel it, and above the dominant note of Burke's manner to catch the accents of a finer and more aerial nature. It is well to remind ourselves, by such passages as the following, every clause of which is worthy of close attention, that had Shelley written no poetry at all, he would still claim a high place in English literature as one of the most perfect of prose-writers.

Poetry is indeed something divine. It is at once the centre and circumference of knowledge; it is that which comprehends all science, and that to which all science must be referred. It is at the same time the root and blossom of all other systems of thought; it is that from which all spring, and that which adorns all; and that which, if blighted, denies the fruit and the seed, and withholds from the barren world the nourishment and the succession of the scions of the tree of life. It is the perfect and consummate surface and bloom of all things; it is as the odour and colour of the rose to the texture of the elements which compose it, as the form and splendour of unfaded beauty to the secrets of anatomy and corruption. What were virtue, love, patriotism, friendship—what were the scenery of this beautiful universe which we inhabit, what were our consolations on this side of the grave—and what were our aspirations beyond it, if poetry did not ascend to bring light and fire from those eternal regions where the owl-winged faculty of calculation dare not ever soar?

It is not possible to do justice in a single article to the interesting matter redeemed from obscurity in these four volumes. We have scarcely space to refer to the "Notes on Sculptures in Rome and Florence," which Mr. Forman has had the good fortune to find in a MS. note-book, and to print for the first time in full. Shelley's feeling for sculpture was perhaps greater than that of any other English poet. His own works supply an inexhaustible range of subjects to be treated perhaps, in bronze or marble, by future sculptors. Few poets have had at the same time so delicate a sense of form and so great a fondness for lingering over images of arrested motion. It was therefore to be expected that he would prove a marvellous interpreter of ancient statuary, and we are not disappointed. These notes, sixty in number, contain some of the finest ideas which have been given to the world upon this subject, and when we consider the condition of criticism sixty years ago, when they were composed, are simply marvellous. They bear traces, both in feeling and expression, of Shelley's then recent study of Plato.

These volumes are uniform with the four volumes of the library edition of Shelley's poetical works, brought out three years ago by Mr. Forman, and are executed in the same admirable style. In

these days, when the production of books is left more and more in mechanical hands, it is only fair to note the appearance of a work in which the beauty of all the details seems to point to special care and forethought. The eight volumes of Shelley's works now completed form at last a suitable monument to one of the chief glories of our literature.

THE STORY OF STELLA PEEL.*

THIS volume does much more than introduce us to a new author and a new heroine. It makes us acquainted with The Literary Production Committee, or, at all events, with so much of The Literary Production Committee as consists of its Secretary, Mr. Charles Montague Clarke, LL.D. Whoever may be the literary people who form the Committee—from motives of modesty they would seem to keep their names concealed—they are certainly to be congratulated on the good fortune by which they have secured the services of so distinguished a Secretary. The formation of their Society is due to one of the most amiable of causes. "The trials and disappointments which are too often the lot of young and unknown authors on first entering the literary arena have been the primary cause of the formation of this Association." They have been moved, they tell us, by the neglect which encountered Charlotte Brontë, Carlyle, Moore, Thackeray, Bulwer, James, and Miss E. Braddon. The way in which these famous authors "were drifted about from publisher to publisher" excites their astonishment at the blindness of publishers. "We may say with Gray," they go on to write,

"Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air."

But these unhappy times have gone by for ever; for, in their own modest words,

those who desire to enter the pleasing field of literature without encountering those stumbling-blocks to genius and progress—Neglect and Prejudice—will find in THE LITERARY PRODUCTION COMMITTEE

A guide, philosopher, and friend.

The literary aspirant, as a rule, if we may trust the Committee, is very sensitive. "The harsh rebuff of an editor or publisher," we are told, "may quench for ever the spark of genius which needed only a little encouragement to fan it, may be, into a brilliant flame." If we might venture to suggest a slight verbal alteration to the Secretary, we would propose that in the next prospectus of his Society he should substitute in the sentence we have just quoted, *a little puffing for a little encouragement*. A moment's reflection will show him that thereby the metaphor will be better supported. For it is by a puff that a spark is raised into a flame. Though the primary cause of the Committee was, as we have seen, compassion, yet its objects, both principal and minor, to adopt its own classification, seem to wander somewhat far from the fields of pure benevolence. At all events, it requires in each case at least half a guinea before it can even begin to ascertain whether there is a spark that requires encouragement. Certainly to honorary members of the Committee it offers its assistance at a very low price. We might even say that it charges for it considerably less than nothing. By the annual subscription of one guinea the following advantages can be obtained:—

1st. All MSS. forwarded by members will be read, and advice and revision given free of charge. 2nd. Their contributions will have priority of consideration and publication. 3rd. A copy of every work published by the Committee will be forwarded gratis. 4th. All Stationery, Music, Books, Publications, &c., will be procured for members at cost price.

It is not easy, by the way, to see how genius is to receive its due reward if all the productions of The Literary Production Committee can be had by an annual subscription of one guinea. When we turn to their list of publications we find six books each at half-a-guinea. Then, too, we have six of Mrs. Charles Montague Clarke's novels at two shillings each, and some other works, whose united price amounts to no less than six shillings and sevenpence. It is as plain as Cocker can make it that by the payment of one guinea an honorary member can at the present moment make a clear gain of three pounds and sevenpence. All the other advantages—advice, revision, priority of consideration and publication—are thrown into the bargain. We are reminded of those members of the medical profession who merely charge for their medicines and give their advice gratis. We have as yet only laid before our readers the principal objects of this benevolent Committee. In their minor objects they wander somewhat far from their primary cause. For it certainly is not easy to see the connexion between the trials and disappointments of the young authors and the Committee's offer to insert advertisements in newspapers at cost price. In their first minor object they might, perhaps, do something to encourage the over-sensitive literary aspirants, for they are willing "to supply on short notice, at a small charge, original verses on any subject—valentines, birthday odes, &c.; also to write to order descriptive articles, essays, &c." They must therefore, we imagine, keep a large staff of authors, for it is hardly to be expected that the Secretary, though he is an LL.D. and the author of "an exhaustive treatise on corns and bunions," can, besides attending to the important duties of his office, be at the same time the original poet and essayist of the Association. Nevertheless, the smallness

of the charge to the purchaser cannot but be somewhat damping to the spark of genius which on the previous page had been encouraged by learning that 6,000*l.* was paid for *Lothair*, and 12,000*l.* for *Our Mutual Friend*.

Dr. Clarke, we notice, is writing a work which might, we should fear, greatly mar the success of the Committee of which he is the Secretary. For the modest price of half-a-crown he is bringing out a "Complete Guide to Literary Success." "This book," he tells us with an assurance that is perhaps justifiable in the author of the exhaustive treatise on corns and bunions—"this book will embody in a plain and practical form an amount of information and illustration such as has never before been condensed in one volume—it will be, in short, a perfect Grammar of Composition and Guide to Authorship." It is a pity, by the way, that this Grammar of Composition was not written a year or two earlier. In that case, Dr. Clarke in his capacity of author might have been of some service to Dr. Clarke in his capacity of Secretary. Certainly, the prospectus of The Literary Production Committee might have been improved by the careful study of even an imperfect Grammar of Composition. The following sentence, for instance, even though it should pass unnoticed in the author of a treatise on corns and bunions, is scarcely up to the high standard of the perfect grammarian:—

The objection of publishers to recognize works by unknown authors is not necessarily caused by any deficiency of merit in them, but by their ignorance of the existence of merit owing to the non-perusal of the works submitted; whilst in consequence of a prejudice in favour of well-known names few publishers now employ a reader on their staff; and, when they do, only submit to him a small portion of the MSS. forwarded to them, which he, after hastily perusing, rejects or accepts, too often most arbitrarily.

But, to return to Dr. Clarke's "Complete Guide to Literary Success." Why, we may well ask, when such a work is to be had for half-a-crown, should any one think of becoming an honorary member of the Literary Association at the cost of a whole guinea? What more is needed by the literary aspirant than literary success? Whether the Secretary acts quite fairly towards his Committee in thus under-bidding it, we must leave it to his own conscience to settle. Against the consequences of his revolt he is doubtless secured. A nameless Committee is not often found to act in opposition to its own secretary. He can generally manage to command a majority of one.

We must not linger so long over The Literary Production Committee as to leave ourselves neither space nor time for considering its product. *The Story of Stella Peel*, however, is not of so remarkable a character as to require any minute criticism. It forms the first number of The Boudoir Library, and, for all that we can see, it may be as well read in a boudoir as anywhere else. It is a little tedious, but boudoirs usually have a sofa and an easy-chair, so that the reader will not be without the means of enjoying a peaceful slumber should drowsiness overcome her. Stella Peel—whose real name, by the way, is Mary Pitts—had run away from home, because her stepfather would not allow her to become an actress. He was a village schoolmaster, and he was resolved that she should become a teacher or go into service. She escaped both positions by taking the train to London. There she in time acquired great fame as a reciter, and married the son of a nobleman. Her lot was not a happy one. In the first place, her husband had an overhanging upper jaw and a receding chin, which showed that he was not only weak, but that his weakness was of that sort which leads to selfishness and cruelty. In the second place, she had not the satisfaction of knowing, till close on her death and the end of the story, who her husband really was. Her fate is mixed up with that of a lady who is almost as much an heroine as herself. At all events, she survives to the very last page and marries the good hero. About the middle of the story we find the two heroines "both drifting on a sea of perplexities, the constituent elements of which were identical." One of the constituent elements of this remarkable sea was, as we have shown, the wicked heir to the nobleman. The other was a poet of a melancholy temperament, who had not been able to find a publisher. We are surprised, by the way, to find that Dr. Clarke has not added a footnote to remind the reader that at the date of the story The Literary Production Committee was not in existence. The poet becomes acquainted with Stella and prevails on her to become what is called the interpreter of his poems to the public. Meanwhile, ignorant of the fact that she is already married, and forgetful moreover of the fact that he is already in love with the other heroine, he at once falls in love with her. She, however, as well became a young woman who could repeat, as the reader had been told, her Church Catechism, kept clear of falling in love with him. However, the rival heroine becomes very jealous, and for a long time the second pair of lovers are estranged from each other. It soon becomes evident to the experienced reader that Stella is doomed to an early death, but before long he begins to be anxious about Flora also. One day in winter she takes a walk by a pool, hears "a whistling wail of wind," and notices that "even the swans seemed moping and depressed." The poet, moreover, for a time despises county balls and fox-hunting, and cannot, we read, find any permanent distraction in mere amusement. We can well believe that, about this part of her story, the author was half inclined to indulge in the luxury of the most tragical conclusion. Perhaps, for all we know, she may have even gone so far as to kill off all the lovers, and have then paid her half-guinea to The Literary Production Committee for the improvement of her MS. "by revision, condensation, expansion, or reconstruction." Some Committeeman, of a more cheerful turn of

* *The Story of Stella Peel*. By Harriet L. Childe-Pemberton. London: Published by the Literary Production Committee.

mind, may have condensed the story by cutting out two death-beds and substituting for them one marriage. Be this as it may, the story has as happy an ending as can be expected or even hoped for. The reader in her boudoir will have her sentimentality gently roused by the heroine's early death, her delight of reading about lovers gratified by the reconciliation of Flora and her poet, and her sense of propriety satisfied by finding that the wicked son of the nobleman makes some approach to repentance, and is to have for his second wife a lady who has a fortune of one hundred thousand pounds.

NICHOL'S BYRON.*

FROM some points of view it might be said that Professor Nichol has had allotted to him the hardest of all the tasks with the distribution of which Mr. Morley is charged in the series of "English Men of Letters." It is not that original research into facts is required, for by this time, unless Lord Broughton's famous papers prove unexpectedly fruitful in the next century, we probably know all about Byron's life that we ever shall know. Nor is it that the last word has been said about the author of *Childe Harold* in the matter of criticism. The difficulty of the task lies rather in the necessity (if it is to be performed according to the rules laid down in the programme of the series) of recording, in a small compass, the events of a very eventful and a much discussed life; and, at the same time, of giving a critical estimate of a very large body of work concerning which doctors disagree, more than concerning any other such work, and in respect to which nothing like a general assent, even of lay-readers, is likely to be attained. Through these difficulties Professor Nichol has made his way with a good deal of courage and not without a good deal of success. His narrative is about the best we have seen on the subject in any reasonable compass. His criticism seems to us inferior, not so much because we do not agree with its decisions, as because those decisions do not seem to us to be full enough, clear enough, or sufficiently co-ordinated into a harmonious view of Byron's singular genius.

The author begins with an elaborate account of the poet's ancestry, dwelling with delight on sea-king Buruns and Birens, and on "a certain shadowy Marshal de Burun, famous for the almost absolute power he wielded in the infant realm of Russia." It is odd that he does not notice the singular coincidence of the existence of the Biren or Biron, favourite of Anna Ivanovna, who is not shadowy at all, and who certainly for a time wielded almost absolute power in the adolescence of the Russian realm. These genealogies are not introduced for nothing, for it is part of Professor Nichol's plan to lay great stress on Byron's aristocratic descent, and at the same time on the bad blood he inherited. The youth of the poet and his mother's fatal mismanagement of him receive due consideration, and so do his years at Harrow and Cambridge. Professor Nichol is very severe on Miss Chaworth for having "no intuition to divine the presence of one of England's master minds" and for preferring her "hale, commonplace, fox-hunting squire." Now in reality Musters was by no means a commonplace person, being much more like Byron's ideal of the all-prevailing seducer and destroyer than Byron himself, though he was no doubt immensely the latter's inferior intellectually. Shortly afterwards Professor Nichol's defence of the influence of Universities as producers of English men of letters is one of the very best things in his book, being not only absolutely in accordance with history, but positively needful in order to overthrow persistent misrepresentation on the part of tailless foxes. The sketches of Byron's early friends are also very good. The unparalleled folly with which the poet paraded and exaggerated the sins of his youth is justly denounced; but Professor Nichol might have found a happier phrase of denunciation than the description of this folly as being "in a manner which even Théophile Gautier might have thought indelicate." We are not aware of a single passage in Gautier's voluminous works where the least symptom of personal indiscretion or *fanfaronnade de vice* is discoverable. In the same context, however, is a remark, which we very heartily endorse, to the effect that "the moral worshippers of Goethe and Burns, who hiss at Byron's name," would do well to attend to certain differences between the gallantries of the three. The chapter devoted to the two first years of Byron's travels is excellent, though we wish we knew what Professor Nichol means by attributing to Englishmen generally, and Byron in particular, a "share in the émigré spirit." The connexion between Byron and Coblenz is not obvious. Nor is it very clear to us what force there is in the remark that the Elgin Marbles are preserved "like ginger" in the British Museum. We have certainly heard of preserved ginger and of *Venice Preserved*, and of several other things, but the analogy to the Elgin Marbles does not make itself plain. The next chapter handles Byron's life during his first stay in London, and contains the best piece of criticism in the book concerning *Childe Harold* and the other romances of the *Corsair* period. Then we come to the marriage, the separation, the second journey abroad, the debasing sojourn at Venice, the comparative reclamation by La Guiccioli, and, lastly, the Greek expedition and its close. All these subjects, some of them very thorny ones, Professor Nichol handles with a judicious mixture of communicativeness and reserve. He is, on the whole, very lenient to Byron,

disbelieving the worst charges against him, and palliating others. With regard to the intellectual work of this time, he is positively enthusiastic, though his enthusiasm is not altogether indiscriminating. For *Cain* and *Don Juan* in particular he can hardly find words to express his admiration. But the reader will find all the necessary facts set down here, and nothing extenuated in any dishonest sense of that word. In respect to Lady Byron, indeed, the biographer is studiously moderate. He has resisted or has not felt the peculiar feeling of repulsion which the idiosyncrasy of character produces on some people. The kind of evil eye which Lady Byron exercised on every one drawn into her circle has perhaps only lately been fully made known by the publication of Mrs. Jamieson's Memoirs.

If we consider Professor Nichol's verdict on Byron's personality too lenient as a whole, it is not because we think worse than he does of his hero's moral delinquencies, but that we think those delinquencies were aggravated by a quality in which Professor Nichol seems to see something of an excuse. This is what we can only call, though we do it with reluctance, the snobbishness of the poet's character. His biographer treats such things as his ineffable request that Lord Delawarr should be spared fagging, "because he is a brother peer"; his welcome of the brother men of letters who stooped to assume the "noble author" attitude to him, and his wrath at those who refused to assume this attitude; his childish ostentation in dress, in boasting of his ancestry, in claiming precedence of the English Ambassador, and all the rest of it as a pardonable eccentricity, not as a definite and very ugly disease. One really is sometimes tempted to think that there must have been a bar sinister somewhere else in the tree than in the place where it usually appears, and that Byron was not a Byron after all, for nothing can be more different than his family pride and that of such typical figures as the famous "Proud Duke" of Somerset. It was uneasy, touchy, most sensitive in little things, and altogether rather the pride of a De Mogyrs or a FitzSnooks than the pride of a bearer of one of the best names in England. We hardly know a more disquieting case for the implicit believers in the maxim *Bon sang ne peut mentir*. For the reply that Byron's blood was not good blood, but very bad blood, will not help them at all, because the badness of the blood in question was of a different sort. The conduct of his father in running away with Lady Caermarthen, of his predecessor in the title when he committed murder with the boast, "I have as much courage as any man in England," was bad enough, but it was in each case the conduct of a bad, but manly, man. Byron's own conduct in not a few cases bore a much greater resemblance to the conduct of what was originally an autonym to "man"; the conduct of that singular class of human beings whom the greatest humourist of our century has gibbeted, sometimes fairly, sometimes unfairly, but certainly for all time as far as the English language is concerned.

It is unpleasant to have to urge this charge against one who was in many ways so great as Byron; but it is so intimately connected with his literary characteristics and shortcomings that a literary critic should never pass it over. It is, we are pretty sure, because Professor Nichol has passed it over, or has at any rate made light of it, that his literary estimate of Byron is incomplete and unsatisfactory. In the first place, he pays, as it seems to us, a great deal too much attention to the remarks of foreign critics on Byron, remarks vitiated at the fount by the fact that the peculiarity alluded to has never struck any one of them. All that the admiration of Goethe, Chasles—by the way, why does Professor Nichol decorate that modest Mazarinian with a "de" which he certainly never assumed—Castelar, and Elze proves is that the matter of Byron's work coincided in a surprising degree with the current thought of Continental Europe at the time and for long afterwards. It did so beyond all question, and such greatness as this may entitle the poet to is as unquestionably his. But an English poet must be judged first of all in reference to English poetry, and his weaknesses as well as his merits in this connexion must be clearly set forth. This is what Professor Nichol has failed to do. He hints rather than points at the hopelessly uncritical condition of Byron's mind, the condition which, according to the mood he was in, made him dismiss Keats as a drivelling idiot or pay him clumsy and inappropriate compliments. He does not lay much, if any, stress on the fact that, notwithstanding Byron's habit of correcting with care what he had written with haste, no poet even of the second order in English literature has left more bad English, more bad verse, more loose and bodiless improvisation, more repetition of himself, more mawkish twaddle. He admits indeed that Byron could do nothing with lyrics—a great point against him, for the poet who cannot if only now and then, and at a pinch, write in the simplest and highest form of verse, hardly deserves the name of poet. But he does not notice that even Byron's best passages will not stand critical examination. They excite rather than transport, and when the reader examines seriously what he has felt, the impression of a vague contagious excitement is all that he retains. The best poetry—all good poetry in fact, whether it be Shakespeare's, or Shelley's, or Spenser's, or Heine's, than which four styles we can hardly conceive any four things more different—has an effect quite independent of the exact thought which it contains, and the beauty of the poetry as poetry goes on supplying a perpetual linked sweetness of suggestion. In reading Byron, on the contrary, the reader dimly feels that he is in the presence of a very eloquent person who is, or would like to be thought, in a state of great excitement about something, and that it is his duty to become excited too. Had

* *Byron*. By John Nichol. London: Macmillan & Co. 1880.

Adam Smith lived, he might have added to his Theory of the Moral Sentiments a most interesting chapter, illustrating the contagion of sympathy from the popularity of Byron. Now this contagion of sympathy survives the difference of language, and hence foreign critics admire Byron while they look at our English exaltation of Keats and Shelley as a deliberate piece of unintelligible will-worship. It may be quite true, as Professor Nichol says, that if 1820-1840 was a period of exaggerated Byron admiration, 1840-1870 was a period of exaggerated depreciation of Byron. But if, as he seems to think, the author of *Childe Harold* is not merely deserving of rehabilitation but in process of receiving it, there is all the more need for very clear critical guidance to direct the repentant and returning worshippers. Those who set themselves to work to adore what they have burnt are apt to go to rather unreasonable lengths in the adoration. No one has the slightest right to be listened to as a critic who denies Byron a high place on our Parnassus. But at the same time it has to be shown that this high place is not only not the highest, but is a long way from the top. It seems to us not merely that Professor Nichol has failed to make this needful demonstration, but also that he has failed to indicate the poet's place, even according to his own notion, at all clearly; and for this reason we cannot assign to the critical part of his book the value which undoubtedly belongs to the biographical part as a clear, full, and interesting narrative.

THE ANTIQUARY.*

AS every county has now an archaeological body whose transactions are duly printed, and there also exist several more broadly constituted Societies who pour their streams of archaeological intelligence over the country at large, there might seem to be hardly need of another periodical "devoted to the study of the past." In the change, however, which a few years ago came over the *Gentleman's Magazine* some elements of interest were excluded that have since been missed by certain classes of inquirers. In fact, popular archaeology, as unrepresented by the Societies, was then rendered homeless. Perhaps this has been a case of no widely-felt distress. Popular archaeology may be shortly defined as pleasant excursions to picturesque old buildings; and, for the most part, the numerous bands of summer antiquaries who rove in confused march from desolated feudal castles to restored cathedrals, are not careful to crowd their memories either before or after their visits with all the details in the history of the objects viewed, being satisfied with the explanations of their leaders on the spot. The several attempts, however, which have been made to establish a serial more or less of the former antiquarian complexion of the *Gentleman's Magazine* shows a belief on the part of the promoters that there is a public waiting for further information on the works and days of old. Two at least of these ventures have proved failures. *Long Ago* published its seventeenth and final monthly number in May 1874. It was well printed and with such satisfactory papers as the Rev. Baring-Gould's "Mythology of the Rainbow," and Mr. Llewellyn Jewitt's illustrated articles on "English Modes of Burial," as typical contributions, it should not have been willingly let die. The *Antiquary*, which anticipated in its title the volume we propose to consider, appeared in weekly numbers during four years, coming to an end also in 1874. Except in the external form, which might have satisfied Jonathan Oldbuck or T. F. Dibdin, we do not see that the later *Antiquary* shows any important characteristics not to be found in its extinct predecessors. In the earlier *Antiquary*, the articles were in general so short and fragmentary that we were reminded of Colton's *Leacon* or Mrs. Glasse's *Cookery*. In its successor of the same name, if the papers are not always on too miniature a scale for the adequate treatment of their subjects, they are too frequently of an accidental or frivolous kind, being apparently the voluntary offerings of dilettante or amateur writers, whose maiden meditations on their favourite fancies have here for the first time arrived to the dignity of print. We look, so far in vain, for such solid papers as Mr. Blight's on "Cornish Churches," or the anonymous series of articles on the "Ancient Architecture of Ireland," that appeared with admirable woodcuts in the later volumes of the old series of Sylvanus Urban. Instead, we find more than one superficial article in recommendation of the sorry practice of making collections of book-plates, a process hardly less puerile than gathering postage-stamps. The original insertion of the book-plate proves that it was intended to be inseparable from the book, and immeasurably more interest frequently attaches to a particular copy of a work by the evidence the plate affords of its former ownership. Every lover of books can point to volumes in his library that are endeared to him not only for their own sake, but for the sake of some one to whom a label or autograph attests that they formerly belonged. The gathering of books for the sake of the armorial or other plates within their covers is an intelligible pursuit—the interest of the plate is communicated to the book, and of the book to the plate. But the gatherer of book-plates dismembered from books has his poor reward in the possession of a hundred coats of arms from as many volumes, that he might with more readiness and less mischief have brought together from the armorial plates of a "Peerage" or "Landed Gentry," of the engravings in which works the book-plates are chiefly a reproduction. It is true all book plates are not heraldic. Like tombstones whose holy texts

teach the rustic moralist to die, within book-covers may sometimes be found admonitions that might be taken to heart by the polished seeker of wisdom from books not their own. These apophthegms are not always selected from Holy Writ, but we have a copy of Paley's *Gothic Architecture* in which the name and address of the pious Mary Anne Schimmelpenninck having been given, we find a verse from Psalm xxxvii, "The wicked borroweth and payeth not again"; a sentence which makes us hasten to affirm that we bought and did not borrow the book. We fear, however, that the adoption of even Mrs. Schimmelpenninck's telling verse of Scripture would prove hardly of more efficacy than the tragical formula so much in favour with schoolboys—"Steal not this book my honest friend, for fear the gallows be your end."

Of more practical value than the contributions we have just mentioned are two papers by Mr. E. P. Loftus Brock, F.S.A., containing his views on church restoration, the true principles of which, he says, are contained in the golden rule, "Repair only," "attention to which would have saved many a priceless building." But even repair has its dangers. "As the clear light on the holy candlestick so is the beauty of the face in ripe age." So also is the incommunicable charm of antiquity which Mr. Brock complains is often effaced from an old building by the ruthless process of "combing down," a style of renovation that is generally classed under the name of repair. The writer illustrates his remarks by anecdotes of his personal experiences as an architect, which contain profitable lessons for less cautious brothers in his profession. Mr. Brock's opinion that "it may be doubted if any other class of men possess generally so much feeling of reverence not only for God's Holy Temple, but for antiquity as architects," ought to excite a generous spirit of emulation in the clergy who administer in that temple.

The Rev. Dr. Hayman's three papers on the "Historical Memories of Tewkesbury Abbey," are, if we perhaps except a short article by the Rev. G. C. Swayne on the "Value and Charm of Antiquarian Study," as literary compositions the most enjoyable in the volume. Thomas Fuller has said in his usual manner, that though arguments are the pillars of a discourse, similes and metaphors are the windows which let in the light. We cannot say so much for Dr. Hayman's figurative elucidations, which are at the least cloudy. His papers are less a history of the abbey than slight biographies of its baronial founders, who raised a structure worthy of their powerful names. By incorporating the political careers of these men in the memories of the abbey Dr. Hayman tells us that "he shall endeavour to show that this church, down to the end of the fifteenth century touches English history at all its greatest epochs." This is intelligible; but he immediately adds: "It is the *locus* of the point of interest all along," by which we understand that Tewkesbury Abbey not only "touched English history" in the line of its greatest events, but was itself the radiating point of interest in those events, which is absurd. The cardinal battle of the field by Tewkesbury (4th May, 1471) would have been fought whether or not there had been an abbey in the neighbourhood to which the defeated lords might fly for sanctuary, and this is the signal episode that gives character to the place. Dr. Hayman further says that the same Church "represents all the greatest influences in our social development; it directly embodies in its memories both the Crown when the Crown was a *primum mobile* in politics, and all the estates of the realm. It shows the Church as the keystone in which the contending masses met and balanced each other." When we remember the feuds between Anselm and William Rufus, Henry II. and Thomas Becket, Stephen Langton and John, we fail to see how the Church was the centre of equilibrium when the Crown was the *primum mobile*. Instead of being the keystone against which the contending estates of the realm fell into the compact and graceful repose of an arch, there was no point of time from the days of Odo to the Reformation in which the Church had not to strive against secular jealousies and factions. In the gradual limitation of her prerogatives by the withdrawal of the offices of military and civil jurisdiction from her spiritual leaders, by the exclusion of the clergy from the House of Commons, by the dissolution of the monasteries and the breaking up of the occupations of their inmates into all our learned professions, the Church has been all along like a field of beaten corn; and the Liberation Society informs us that her scientific frontier is not even yet settled. How the fierce splendour of the throne reflected from the royal alliances of the abbey founders beats through the pictured windows and gilds the monumental shrines of De Clares and Spencers is spiritedly told; but even here we find a grotesque figure of speech. "Tap the stream of our annals," says the writer, "where you will during those four centuries, and at every greater epoch you find a Lord of Tewkesbury, under some loftier title of honour, prominent in the crises. Thus the second founder, Fitz Hamon, nephew by marriage of the Conqueror, was of the dragon's seed of the Conquest, and represents its ideas." An outrush of high-titled lords from sluices in a stream suggests, according to the similitude used, an immersion as profound as that of perjured Clarence in malmsey, whose burial vault Dr. Hayman describes; and they would need indeed to have the vitality of the dragon's seed of Cadmus to spring to the dignity of the armed men whom we are supposed to behold on tapping the stream. Of course the writer has not forgotten the impressive incident after the battle, when the abbot (Strensham), bearing in his hand the consecrated host, charged the victorious king not to continue the bloodshed within the holy walls, whither many of the defeated combatants had fled. Upon the massacre being stayed, "monks, abbot, soldiers, knights, and king all formed in

* The *Antiquary*: a Magazine devoted to the Study of the Past. Edited by Edward Walford, M.A. Vol. I. London: Elliot Stock. 1880.

procession and went through the church and the quire to the hy awtere with grete devotion, praysege God, and yeldyng unto hym conveniente lawde." More happily than in some of his instances, Dr. Hayman, in commenting upon this powerful scene, remarks that "since Theodosius was turned back by Ambrose from the gates of Milan Cathedral more than a thousand years before, there is no more impressive episode in Church history, nor one which more closely illustrates the beliefs and customs of the age."

When a sufficient account of the ancient monastic foundations of the country comes to be written, the Rev. Precentor Walcott's three papers, "Notes on some Northern Minsters," may, with the ground plans, be found useful to the historian of the subject. That there is not already such a scholarly history, notwithstanding the ready aid afforded for the work by the vast compilations of original records in Dugdale and Tanner, is as surprising as the general ignorance as to the character of the monastic system. That every monk was a priest is no more true than that every priest was a monk; but many liberally educated people would be found to believe, if questioned, that the taking of vows involved the taking of priestly orders. Mr. Walcott shows how the bareness of mere archaeological statement may be sometimes relieved by literary references. The editor of the next edition of *Rokeby* may judiciously derive a note from the interesting mention of the Præmonstratensian Abbey of Athelstan or Eggleston (near Barnard Castle), through whose "Gothic arch" Bertram Risingham is represented by the poet to dash among the startled worshippers. The three rapid bounds with which "the noble courser" clears the "central nave" and "chancel wide" are declared to have been impossible. "The 'central nave' is aisle-less, and its very low doorways could never have admitted a horseman and his steed." Hardly more authentic than the spirited leaps of Risingham's courser was, if we may believe Mr. T. Morgan Owen, the triumphal procession of King Edgar on the Dee, with eight tributary kings for his carmen, which has been received with as unquestioning faith as Queen Elizabeth's visit with her sparkling cavalcade to St. Paul's to solemnize the defeat of the Armada. Mr. Owen starts up for the honour of his royal countrymen, and reasonably asks who were these kings that cowardly deserted their subjects to become carmen to an alien prince? That the early chroniclers differ as to the names of the royal boatmen, and that the Saxon chronicle does not mention the triumphant procession by water, is hardly increased in significance by the writer immediately adding, "nor does Humphrey Lloyd, in his *Historie of Cambria*, allude to this matter."

Both for its subject and manner of treatment we ought perhaps to touch upon the article by Mr. Edmund Waterton, F.S.A., on "The Imitation of Christ, by Thomas à Kempis." The title of the paper assumes the authorship of the *De Imitatione* to be irreversibly settled. "The rights of Thomas à Kempis," says the writer, "to the authorship are incontestable, and as clear as the rays of the sun at noon." They have been clearly and irrefutably proved by the late Mgr. Malou, Bishop of Bruges, whose literary reputation is European. Mr. Waterton does not go over the proof, and his article perhaps is not the less interesting for the omission. Like the Bible itself, the division of the "Imitation" into verses or sentences is not original, and would not have been effected had it been noticed that the work in its primary form was metrically composed and indicated "pauses of greater or shorter duration to be served in reading." This fact has been recently established by Dr. Hirsch by means of the Antwerp Codex (1441), and sufficient instances of the rhythmical arrangement are given by Mr. Waterton, whose short paper should be read in connexion with an article on the subject in the April number of the *Dublin Review*. Much of the literary and even spiritual charm of the book consists in its rhythmical construction. It was originally written for the use of the Brothers of Common Life, in the Low Countries, who were not bound by solemn vows, though obliged to practice obedience, poverty, and self-subjection. This accounts both for its monastic character and for the overflow of sublimated feeling that could afford consolation to such seemingly widely-asunder spirits as Comte and John Wesley, the latter of whom published an edition of the book.

"We are the gleaners after time," is the four times iterated refrain to some melodious verses prefixed to the *Antiquary*. The numerous cuttings from the *Athenæum* and the current newspapers give rather a literal interpretation to this honest confession. We cannot but think that these extracts, together with the notices of the meetings of learned Societies, might with advantage be separately paged, and added or omitted according to individual taste at the end of the volume. As they stand appended to each number, to the extent of a dozen pages together of small print, they offend the eye, and impart a more ephemeral appearance to the work than is perhaps needful. The genealogist has yet to wait for a periodical that will afford him a system of biographical and obituary notices, such as was contained during a course of one hundred and forty years in the *Gentleman's Magazine*. These were interesting and valuable, and are the only general source of reference of their kind for that period, and not beyond. In conclusion, we unfeignedly wish prosperity to the *Antiquary*; but its success must not depend solely, or even chiefly, on beauty of paper and typography.

TREES AND TREE PLANTING.*

MR. ABLETT'S work on *English Trees and Tree Planting* is a volume out of which may be gleaned much and curious arboricultural information for which landowners and farmers not specially literary or exact may be the better. At the same time it can hardly be said to surpass *Brown's Forester*, Pridaux Selby's *British Forest Trees*, or a more concise, succinct, and yet more exhaustive work than either, Mr. John Grigor's *Arboriculture*. Mr. Ablett has some interesting facts to tell as to the "eucalyptus globulus," and, amongst other things, as to the changing of barren sea tracts into thriving plantations of pineaster; but it must be confessed that the bulk of this information has been furnished long ago by Grigor, and that special details, such as the aptitude of willows and alders to fix the banks of watercourses, and to prevent the edges of river banks being washed away by sudden floods, are better and more practically given by Mr. Holt Beaver in some of his experiences of Herefordshire farming on the banks of the Wye.

Mr. Ablett enters in *medias res*, when he divides English trees and tree-planting into (1) cone-bearing or resinous trees; (2) soft-wooded fast-growing trees; (3) broad-leaved timber trees; (4) trees and shrubs for arboricultural decoration. Under the head "Conifera" he classes "pinus and abies," and ten subsidiary genera, all evergreen save the larch and the ginkgo (not "gingo," p. 71). Of the *Pinus sylvestris*, the spruce, and the larch, the native and favourite soil is high and dry, and slow-growing. In fact, the researches of such grand planters as Lord Haddington 120 years ago, as well as of travellers and planters generally in the Highlands, Sweden, Norway and parts of Germany, Russia, and Poland, show that such timber is hardest, best, and reddest of colour in the coldest and most northerly situations, and that in richer soils and milder climates the seed degenerates. The researches of Mr. Don and Messrs. Grigor established clearly a deterioration of seed from cones of different qualities; the first or inferior, elongated, tapering, and with a rugged bark, but proportionately free-bearing; the second or better variety, thicker, smoother, less pointed, and harder. Don conjectured that the greater part of the fir-woods of his day were of variety 1, the common and not horizontal variety; and the researches of the chief amateur planters in England and Scotland have abundantly established that successful Scotch fir-planting depends on procuring the true native seed of the mountains. As to the timber felling in the Swedish forests, with which the only region that can adequately compete is North America, Mr. Ablett cites several curious notes of travellers. A good account occurs in pp. 84-5 of M. Rupp's invention of the slide of Alpach, as it was called in 1812, for launching pine timber down a vast trough, or inclined plane, from the top of Mont Pilatus to Lake Lucerne, nearly nine miles. Though wonderfully ingenious and effective, the speculation was abandoned when the markets of the Baltic were opened. The produce of the Scotch pine-wood plantations is shown to be proportionately valuable in all its stages, and minute directions are given for obtaining and manipulating, pulverizing, and cultivating the seed, which should be sown about mid April in England, and in the first week of May in Scotland. Of the Cluster Pine (*P. pineaster*), so called from its starlike form, we learn that it is indigenous to the Mediterranean, and Southern Europe, was introduced to England by Gerrard, at the end of the sixteenth century, and consists of many varieties. As may be gathered from its application to seaside tracts, it serves best for a deep dry sandy soil, and it is a most valuable tree to such localities, being of handsome, pyramidal form, and having clustering light green foliage. From its wide-spreading roots and the great depth to which they strike, it is rather an unsafe plant to move successfully, and two-year-old seedlings seldom take root when removed. Somewhat akin is the Corsican Pine (*P. Laricio*), a larger and handsomer tree of lower altitudes, and addicted to more average soils, introduced into England about the middle of the eighteenth century. One at Kew is nearly ninety feet high, but it is a white softish deal, not much used, and when used, more fit for packing cases than for joinery proper. The Austrian pine, a tree of robust growth and resinous timber, imported from Austria in 1835, reaches 100 feet in its own country. The Stone Pine, common to Southern Italy and Ravenna, is an ornamental tree in Italian landscape, a second-rate ornamental plant in England, best on a dry sand near the sea. In its own land it has edible and nutritious seeds.

Mr. Ablett's volume contains an account of the industry of "lumbering," a mode of procuring in gangs the timber of the white pine, which employs a vast number of British colonists in the United States. A "lumbering party" consists, we learn, of persons hired by a master man who finds pay, provisions, food, clothing, implements, and the like, on the consideration of receiving from the lumberers the timber brought down the rivers by them in the following summer. The camps, log-built and birch-bark-roofed, inhabited from midwinter till April, when the freshets come down, induce a reckless life, and the moral character of the lumberers is asserted to be generally undesirable, although so fascinating that even steady men from Prince Edward's Island are apt to leave the biggest wheat farms for the lucrative winter trade of lumbering. Among other coniferous trees Mr. Ablett describes the giant or Lambert's pine, from northern California,

* *English Trees and Tree Planting*. By W. H. Ablett. London: Smith Elder, & Co. 1880.

the Himalayan or Bhotan pine, the heavy-wooded *Pinus ponderosa*, and the pines of the Alps, Pyrenees, and other cold exposures, such as *Pinus sylvestris mugho*, *pumilio*, and *uncinata*—seldom more than mere bushy shrubs, of thick-set dark green foliage and hard wood. We should have been glad if Mr. Ablett had been able to point to the origin or derivation of the “mugho,” which, however, he does no more than name. Of the spruce-firs—a genus of *conifera* differing from the pines in form and position of leaves—one of the commonest and tallest indigenous to Europe is the Norway spruce (*A. excelsa*), growing erect, conical in shape, and of luxuriant foliage to the very ground. It reaches 180 feet, and occurs in the *Hortus Kewensis* of Turner in the sixteenth century. For ornament and beauty it should have space and shelter, while for growth in plantations and for profit it is all the better for crowding, which results in its shedding its branches. The *Abies nigra* is the most durable American spruce, impervious to frost, and used in America as knees for shipbuilding. In this country it is most grown for ornament and rich dense foliage, as well as for its banyan-like tenacity of lateral branches, which depend, circle, and root anew round the parent tree.

The curious will find in the chapters concerning the silver firs and the rest of the *conifera*, accurate notes of soil, growth, habit, and cultivation. Perhaps among the *conifera* no tribe can rival the larch, the chief and almost sole deciduous tree of the tribe, as to which Mr. Ablett gives a well-considered summary of its cultivation, durability, casualties, and diseases. When we come to the genera and species of broad-leaved timber trees, and discuss the ancient historic oaks of England and the evergreens and sub-evergreens of the same great tribe, which so many writers, such as Selby, Gilpin, Grigor, Brown, and others have carefully commemorated, it is evident that a new aspirant to the praise of arboricultural research is nowhere, unless he is exact and accurate; yet where, except in the merest shifting of form and omission of essential facts, e.g. foliage and acorns, does Mr. Ablett's record of the Winfarthing oak, old at the Conquest, differ from Grigor's? Where Mr. Ablett says the Boddington oak in the Vale of Gloucester was 54 feet in circumference at the base in 1850, Priedeaux Selby meets us with the statement that the remains of it were burnt down in 1790, a discrepancy *valde deflendum* to all lovers of accuracy. But not to multiply examples of unverified statement, of which we cannot acquit Mr. Ablett, in his account of the cork tree (*Quercus suber*) borrowed wholesale from Grigor and Loudon, whom he misprints *Loudan*, he has the temerity to hazard a reference to history. “During the siege of Rome by the Gauls (he tells us in p. 180), Camillus, who was sent to the Capitol through the Tiber, wore a life-preserver of cork beneath his dress. Curious, if true, is the natural remark.” But we look in vain through Livy's *History of Rome*, Book V., and Plutarch's *Camillus*, for chapter and line. At last a keener search than Mr. Ablett can have deemed the question deserved discovered that, according to Livy, in the severest strait of Rome, it was determined to send for Camillus, an exile, from Ardea, and that for that object an active young man, Pontius Cominius, volunteered, and swam down the Tiber to the city, *incubans cortici*; “with the assistance of cork tree bark.” Plutarch tells the same story, which might be found in the English of Andrew Thevet's translation of *Plutarch*, and which might have prevented our editor from making the slip. While yielding to none in claiming due honour to the elm whether English or wych as a forest tree of mark and pre-eminence, we regret to see it so cursorily or perfunctorily mentioned as in pp. 200-5. The first paragraph of p. 200 seems to imply that after attaining maturity at seventy or eighty years, the English elm is apt to become hollow in the centre, and “during heavy gales these affected trees are often blown down, making a gap in some stately avenue, perhaps leading to a country mansion, &c.” We cannot agree that, except near stagnant water, elms are so liable to be blown down in other than exceptional gales or hurricanes, as in the calmest summer weather, when taxed beyond endurance by the overweening density of foliage. In the Midlands the English elm is as often known as Worcestershire as “Warwickshire”; and it would have been well had Mr. Ablett gone a little deeper into the distinct varieties of it. We ourselves a month or so ago beheld one of the most graceful of trees of the *Ulmus campestris* character of upright growth and shining, whitish leaves, ornamenting the lawn and terraces of Treago, an old castellated mansion near Ross. It would have been better to give a few carefully-penned chapters containing the needful data as to the birch, the walnut, and the chestnuts, horse and Spanish, than to copy almost word for word from Grigor. As a rule, we have found Mr. Ablett's advice about plantations and planting with a view to shelter sound and sage, and the hints on transplanting grown timber on Sir H. Stewart's improved plan useful and practical. The author is worthy of heed, too, on the vexed question of hedges, though as to the Lombardy poplar, he fails, to our apprehension, in showing that a *Populus fastigiata*, grown for embellishment in this country, has not far greater beauty in a landscape than those acres of uniform flat and lopped fencing which form the sole hedgerows of the Continent. But we have one fault to find with this book—namely, its too free appropriation of recent and extant authorities, such as Grigor, Brown, Grindon, and others.

JOHNSTON'S HISTORICAL ATLAS.*

IT is somewhat singular that, notwithstanding the excellence of English cartography, we have hitherto in many ways lagged very far behind the Continent in the provision for the student of atlases, definitely intended to facilitate and accompany the study of history. Nothing even approaching Spruner in excellence has ever been put forth by any of our map publishers in respect of modern history; and, though the now numerous classical atlases published at different times are practically atlases of ancient history, few attempts to extend them to modern times have been made at all. The volumes before us are an attempt at an historical atlas, it should have been added—of English history—for, though foreign countries figure in the list of contents, the number of maps allotted to them is few compared with that given to the three kingdoms, and even those which are included deal rather with the foreign relations of England than with anything else. Incidentally, of course, a good deal of assistance is given to the student of general history, but primarily the book is a companion to the annals of England. Of the thirty-four maps which its first volume contains, seven are allotted to England at different times; five to Scotland, two to Ireland, three to France, eight to Europe; while maps of North America during the period of colonial dissatisfaction and revolt; of the world, showing geographical discoveries and British possessions; of our Indian Empire; of Russia, to illustrate the Crimean war; and of Turkey and the Turkish Empire, to illustrate that of 1877-8, complete the list.

The execution of the maps is, on the whole, what might be expected of publishers who have done so much for geography; but we do not know that their design and details can be quite so generally praised. To begin with; the *format*—a quarto of no great size—seems to us rather too small. This is not of much consequence in the earliest maps, where the comparatively scanty details of Roman Britain find room and verge enough for insertion. It may be observed, however, that the companion map of Roman Gaul is anything but lavish in the matter of insertions, that it is decidedly capricious as to inclusions and exclusions, and that the modern names are added or omitted with still greater caprice. It may be quite right to mark the site of Carnac as a monument existing in Roman times; but, if so, why omit the Pont du Gard? If Tolosa needs [Toulouse] in brackets, why is Augustodunum left unaccompanied by [Autun]? Something of the same objection may be made to the map of Saxon England, though that of Scotland is better. We cannot see the use of giving a single map of Europe “during the Norman and Plantagenet periods” because the changes in the course of the three or four hundred years covered by that phrase were necessarily so great and numerous that the student will be more puzzled than assisted by it. It would be a waste of time to point out all these changes, because every one acquainted with the subject is aware of them. It is sufficient to say that, according to this map, the unwary student (and how unwary average students are it is needless to say) will be under the impression that Normandy was constantly, and no other part of France at any time, under English rule between 1100 and 1400, that during the same period the Empire, the States of the Church, and Naples neatly trisected Italy between them, and that Spain unalterably consisted of a huge kingdom of Castille, a small Aragon, and a tiny Granada and Navarre. Some indeed of these very arrangements are shown differently in the next map, “Europe during the Crusades.” Yet we are under the impression that the Crusades were wholly included in the “Norman and Plantagenet” period. In another map, that of France, illustrating the Hundred Years' War, there are some serious defects; the provinces are indeed marked, but then for this period, much more important minor districts, such as Rouergue, for instance, are very sparingly given, and the sites of events of great importance, such as Brignais, Cocherel, and Formigny, are also to seek. The maps which follow are open to less exception; but when we come to a map of Europe from 1660 to 1714, the same objection which was previously urged becomes applicable, as well as to that which professes, almost more hardly, to represent the same continent from 1714 to 1830. The truth is that to design a really good historical atlas is by no means an easy thing. The only way to do it is to seize the important dates, and give representations of the arrangement of countries at these, and this is what in this atlas seems to have been but little attended to. That it will be of use need not be said, for, except when it attempts the impossible, it is generally accurate, and its defects can be supplied without much difficulty. But it certainly might have been made much better by a slight extension of scale and a more careful choice of subjects. Thus, we do not know that three different maps are required for England since the accession of the Tudors, while, most assuredly, three are not required for Scotland. On the other hand, the maps of Europe might have been increased in number with great advantage, and this increase of number would have enabled them to be allotted each to a distinct and actual date and arrangement, and not to fallacious and unreal “periods.”

The most obvious objection to the enlargement of the scale of the maps and the increase of their number is, of course, the corresponding increase of cost. But this might have been met very simply. At present the work consists of two volumes, of which

* *Historical Atlas*. 2 vols. W. & A. K. Johnston. Edinburgh and London. 1880.

we venture to think the second wholly superfluous and a mistake. It consists of historical notes to the first, or, in other words, of a sketch of the history and geography of England, Europe, and some other parts of the world, for a couple of thousand years. Such a thing is, in the first place, unnecessary, because an historical atlas is intended to be not a self-contained compendium of historical and geographical information, but a companion to regular and more or less elaborate historical works. In the second place, it is an impossibility in the space allotted. One hundred and thirty-seven pages, even if they be quarto pages, and tightly packed with letter-press, cannot possibly contain more than the barest outline of the facts represented by thirty-four maps of the history of England and Europe. Such a sketch, therefore, attempts to do more or less badly what is already well and sufficiently done by others which are in their proper sphere. Nor is this highly-compressed compendium of history free from some errors in its course from "Midacritus, a Phœnician, who is the first civilized man known to have had any dealings with Great Britain," and who had those dealings at some very indefinite period, down to the present Sultan, who "has accepted the English scheme of reform for Asia Minor." These last words show the folly of attempting such a sketch in such a book; a year probably has passed since the words were written, and the acceptance of the English scheme of reform for Asia Minor is a matter which is not even history. Errors of detail are perhaps unavoidable. Still, it would be well not to assume that the modern Autun is the ancient Bibracte, because the best authorities have come to the conclusion that it is not, Bibracte being now assigned to the much more likely situation of Mont Beuvray, at some little distance from the city. Nor is it correct to say that in the memorable uprising which so nearly overthrew Cæsar's divided forces, Sabinus (here carelessly printed Vabinus) had his camp surprised. The facts were that Sabinus was, according to a stratagem common with barbarians, lured from his camp and attacked on the march. To take a very different period, it is not correct to speak of the "great mountain chain of Corry-Arrick" as having been in possession of Charles Edward when Cope advanced. Corry-Arrick is not a mountain chain at all, but simply a pass with a hill of the same name on one side of it. These small inaccuracies, which are not surprising in a closely packed assemblage of facts, might probably be supplemented by a good many others. But their existence is not the ground of our objection to these historical notes; nor do we complain of the frequent awkwardnesses of style which are also noticeable. At the same time we must say that such a sentence as "the settlers, to the number of 146, were seized and imprisoned in a dungeon known as the Black Hole, 123 of whom perished in one night," can hardly be considered quite up to the mark. The point of objection is, as already stated, that the book aims at an impossibility. Universal histories in a small compass are generally a mistake; but a universal history in a small compass as a key to an atlas seems to be a mistake equally obvious and gratuitous. Among other difficulties which at once strike the reader is the difficulty of proportioning ancient and modern information. There is a natural tendency to enlarge the latter at the expense of the former. Thus we have here two entire pages out of the small number available occupied with tabular statements of the results of the Reform Bills of 1832 and 1867, things extremely useful in themselves, but certainly not worthy in such a book of occupying almost the same space that is given to the whole history of our Indian Empire. The same kind of criticism might be very much extended. Although, therefore, we have no doubt at all that these volumes will be very useful for reference, we think that a different plan would have made the work much more useful in itself, and useful to a much larger class. As it is, it may serve very well as a reference-book to keep on the shelves for those persons who like to be able to throw some light on historical or geographical allusions which they find in their ordinary reading. It also suggests itself as a very useful addition to the bookcase of primary schools, girls' schools, and other places of education where no very perfect scheme of instruction is aimed at, but where teachers of moderate cultivation often have to satisfy curiosity over a wide range of subjects. Even for these purposes we think that it would have been better if the historical notes had taken the form simply of a full and elaborate index of places against each of which, besides its whereabouts in the maps, might have been set a short notice (with dates) of the event or events which make it famous in history. But for the most valuable purpose of an historical atlas—the assistance of the actual student—very much more considerable changes would be required. We should suggest the abolition of the historical notes altogether, and the retention only of the maps and the purely geographical index, the maps being, if possible, doubled in size and the entries largely increased. There is no need to abandon the present plan of restricting their reference chiefly to English history and English relations with foreign Powers, because that we take to be of the essence of the book; and it is no part of a critic's duty to suggest to authors or publishers that they should attempt something entirely different from that which they have attempted. But it is a part of the critic's duty to point out how the actual attempt has come short of success, and that is what we have endeavoured to do. It is almost impossible to exaggerate the value of a good historical atlas as an assistance to the study of history, and something less expensive and elaborate than Spruner, and more strictly limited to the needs of the average English student, is very much wanted, and when supplied would be pretty certain of a good sale. The volumes before us—at least the first, for we own

to regarding the second as a mere useless encumbrance—are a great deal better than nothing, and will be doubtless welcomed by a good many persons. Such an atlas as we have described, especially with a few plans of battle-fields, &c., squeezed into the corners, and with the dates given either in the plates themselves or on the margins, would be still more acceptable, and certainly more valuable. Any contrivance that is to assist the labour of many requires not a little thought on the part of the contriver, and in this historical atlas we do not think that the due proportion of thought has on the whole been given. To supply what is wanted, and not what is not wanted, is, it may be admitted, not an easy task for any caterer.

THE SHADOW OF A LIFE.*

A SUPERNATURALLY mysterious father, an equally unfathomable mother, and a lover who may best be described as a male flirt, are the personages who conspire to make Miss Ella Hamilton's life somewhat miserable to her; but, as it behoves every well-ordered novel of the present day to end well, happiness is the result of her three-volume misery. Thus far it may be said that Miss Beryl Hope's work is satisfactory, and, at the same time, she may be congratulated on the fact that her writing is tolerably correct and smooth. We wish it was in our power to say more of what has evidently cost the writer a great deal of trouble in composing. To say that this novel is beyond the pale of criticism is simply to acknowledge that the critic's art is limited to ordinary human experience, and that it is asking too much of a mortal when a judgment is demanded upon such extraordinary characters as those which appear in these volumes. Candidly confessing our inability, we will endeavour to sketch the main incidents that Miss Beryl Hope, in the character of Miss Ella Hamilton, a country doctor's daughter, has put together as making up the story of her life.

At the time when we are introduced to Mr. Hamilton he is a medical man in a very prosperous way of business, suffering from what is vulgarly called a chronic fit of the "blues." Some mysterious secret, as his daughter tells us, embitters his life. Naturally a cheerful girl, Miss Ella finds her home-life dull, confronted as she is by this melancholy father and his no less cheerless spouse, and it is not surprising that, after a scene of open rebellion against her governess, the young lady is packed off to school. From this she comes back, to find that matters are much in the same state as when she went away, and her discontent returns. One day, whilst sitting in her father's carriage at the door of one of his fashionable patients' houses, she is surprised with a request from the footman to go into the house. Here she is greeted by a Lady Constance Milford, the wife of a consumptive baronet, who treats her very kindly. This seems to her to be the turning-point of her life, for Miss Ella's ambition, it appears, is to visit and be on familiar terms with "the quality." When she informs her mysterious mother of the visit, however, she finds that it is not the most agreeable subject of conversation that she could have hit upon. And now we are further introduced to a certain family of Thorburns, who appear to be, much to Miss Ella's disgust, more to her mother's liking than the more aristocratic Milford family. By trade an ironmonger, Mr. Thorburn is certainly not of the most polished type; neither has his wealth—for he is wealthy—enabled him to educate his children particularly well. We are informed that Mr. Thorburn in the dark past had been very good to Mr. Hamilton, had even lent him money, and otherwise assisted him. The Thorburn girls are sharp enough to see Miss Ella's contempt for them, and consequently the visit is not of the most pleasing nature; in fact, had it not been that Miss Ella had just caught a glimpse of the hero of the novel buying a pair of spurs in the shop, we do not see why she should have paid it at all. On the next visit to the Milfords we are introduced to the hero, Captain Claude Douglas, and Miss Ella is much disconcerted at remembering where she had last seen him. To her great astonishment, shortly after this her mysterious father proposes that she should take a situation as a governess, by way of conquering her restless desire for society, and informs her that Lady Constance has heard of a place that would suit her. Naturally she resents this; and, being led to speculate upon her father's relations with Lady Constance, comes to the conclusion that it is all a plot to get her out of the way. Nevertheless, the Fates had so ordained; and, after having paid a visit to the family of the Douglasses, where she was to be governess, she is witness to a scene that makes her hail the chance of leaving home with joy. The consumptive baronet has gone to his rest, and Ella and her father are spending the day at Milford. She, not in the best of tempers, walks out unseen upon the terrace, and, passing by the drawing-room, sees her father embracing Lady Constance. The secret is out, thinks this innocent young person, and rushes off to faint in the woods; but is kindly brought to her senses by a younger Mr. Milford, who accompanies her to the house. The situation is sufficiently disagreeable, it must be owned; and Ella, seeing it in all its hideousness, determines to be a governess, and, we suppose, let her impenetrable father go his ways. Much disturbed at what she had witnessed, she becomes the governess at the Douglasses; but nevertheless allows her father, without any protest on her own part, to send her younger sister Mildred to live with the woman with whom she considers him to have a most abominable intrigue. In her

* *The Shadow of a Life*. By Beryl Hope. 3 vols. London: Allen & Co.

new situation she is made love to by Captain Douglas, who is Mrs. Douglas's brother-in-law. Indeed, from what we can see, every encouragement is given to the interesting couple by the mistress of the house, and she lives at Wentworth more as a guest than a governess.

The love-making proceeds in a way of its own, until, true to the old adage, and also to the exigencies of a three-volume novel, something occurs to upset its course. This something appears in the persons of Miss Ethel Blantyre, Mrs. Douglas's sister, and of an old housekeeper at Wentworth. The first time we come across Miss Blantyre is through the medium of a photographic album, where Ella sees a remarkably handsome girl, and is told accidentally that Captain Douglas was at one time engaged to the lady whose picture she was looking at. At an interesting point of the love episode Ella goes home to her father's house, where she learns that Mr. Thorburn, junior, a type of the genus cad, was an aspirant for her sister Agnes's hand. This is too much, and a violent scene ensues, estranging the two families. Shortly after this, Mrs. Hamilton is taken ill, and Ella is summoned in the middle of the night to her mother's room to find her lifeless. The cause of death, as it was found at the inquest, was an overdose of chloroform, and the jury, upon which was Mr. Thorburn, returned the extraordinary verdict "That the deceased died from the effects of an over-dose of chloroform; but whether it had been administered by accident or design there was not sufficient evidence to prove." Things look black indeed for the impenetrable father, who, to aggravate matters, now began to receive visits from Lady Constance at his own house. Upon Ella's return to Wentworth, she found Miss Blantyre in the flesh. In a very short time, Captain Douglas's conduct arouses suspicion in her mind, and the fiend of jealousy takes possession of her, as it appears afterwards, with good cause. This unfortunate lady is once more placed in the position of Peeping Tom of Coventry. Alone in a summer-house in the garden at Wentworth, she hears voices which she recognizes as those of Captain Douglas and Miss Blantyre, and her ungovernable curiosity leads her to look through a crack at the back of the summer-house, when she sees two more people kissing, and faints as before, to be found and revived as before by Milford, junior, who was staying at the house. Among the other visitors at this time at Wentworth is a sister of Mr. and Captain Douglas, a person whose existence will be necessary further on in the story. Captain Douglas, surprised at the way in which the little governess now begins to treat him, determines to go on the Continent, and, as if things had not conspired sufficiently to destroy Ella's peace of mind, she hears that her father, whose practice had almost dwindled to a shadow, is also bound on a Continental trip with Lady Constance Milford. She feels she is going mad, and it is not surprising to hear that, after a proposal of marriage from Milford, junior, which she declines, she is taken seriously ill and change of scene is recommended. Mrs. Douglas, with characteristic kindness, persuades her mother, Lady Barthwick, to take the heart-broken girl to London. In the whirl of the London season Ella seems to recover rather rapidly, and makes the acquaintance of a bewildering number of nobility and gentry, and amongst them of the Earl and Countess of Brantford and Lord and Lady Eustone. One day at Lady Barthwick's Ella picks up a provincial newspaper and reads a paragraph to the purport that Mr. Hamilton, "the mysterious death of whose wife formed recently the subject of so much comment," was on the Continent with Lady Constance Milford, with remarks on the subject far from pleasing. The consequence is an action for libel by Mr. Hamilton against the proprietor of the paper, who turns out to be Mr. Thorburn, the wealthy ironmonger, and the counsel for the plaintiff is made the medium of the explanation of all the mysteries in the preceding two volumes. What this explanation is it would perhaps be hardly fair to the author to reveal, for while this is one of the things with which we have to find most fault in the book, it is also a well-ascertained fact that one of the pleasures of novel-reading lies in finding out mysteries for one's self. It may be thought that in this case there is too much bulk and too much variety of mystery.

In small doses mystery is valuable and tends to create interest; but it becomes irksome when it is pumped upon one. Why did Lady Constance behave as she did? Why did the lady's-maid's mother behave as she did? Why did the mysterious Mr. Hamilton allow people to think he is a murderer when one word would have undeceived them? And why did not Mr. Thorburn, who knew all the circumstances, and who knew that he was making himself liable to imprisonment for unwarrantable libel, apologize publicly and save himself from ruin? Why—but we will not ask any more questions. The answer is, alas! too evident. The three-volume novel must be written, and hence these impossibilities. Miss Beryl Hope has attempted the task of writing a three-volume novel, with what success we leave it to the reader to judge. Rubbish—that is to say, clever rubbish—will certainly help to while away some hours at the sea-side during the summer holidays. There are portions of this novel which have merit, but they are immediately followed up by situations which, when compared with real life, do not stand the test. The most contemptible individual in the book is the hero, who is mean enough to make a girl in an inferior station of life violently in love with him, and yet has not the courage to declare himself publicly. *The Shadow of a Life*, shorn of half its improbabilities, would perhaps have been a good novel.

JAMES'S INDIAN INDUSTRIES.*

IN order that the pressing problem of the weal of British India may be brought well within the scope of general educated opinion at home, there is much need of manuals or books of reference fitted to bring home to minds of average intelligence the primary facts on which may be built up a sound and trustworthy knowledge of the material resources of India and the industries engaged in their development. Especial value must of course attach to reports or statistical compilations which embody the results of individual and practical experience. It is from this point of view that Mr. Eliot James's *Indian Industries* claims to speak with authority. In addition to what he has brought together from the best known and most authoritative books, official documents, and other public sources, he has brought to bear his personal knowledge of the country, from which he has for some years retired. With these materials he has incorporated several papers on detached subjects of interest which have appeared from time to time in the *British Mercantile Gazette*, considerably enlarged, if not substantially rewritten. His facts and figures show signs of careful and conscientious compilation, and of candour and impartiality in statement.

India's real wealth, Mr. James with unquestionable truth insists, lies in her land. It is with agriculture that his survey commences, as the basis of all Indian industries and the inseparable condition of all commercial enterprises. He is no blind optimist, nor does he shut his eyes to the fact that the fertility of Indian soil has decreased of late years, the yield of produce being smaller than it used to be, and the quality of the land, be it from exhaustive cropping, continued drought, or whatever cause, deteriorating yearly. But he shows himself no less convinced that many, if not all, of the causes of deterioration are transitory or exceptional, such as enlightened measures of improvement can dispose of. The primary want of India is unquestionably capital, and with it the introduction of improved implements and other appliances of agriculture. Many native prejudices are to be got rid of. The usurer's grip of the poverty-stricken ryot has to be relaxed. Rotation of crops has to be more generally practised. The establishment of a Department of Agriculture, bringing the Government into direct relations with the farmer, and having power to advance money and provide savings banks, is strongly urged by our author in accordance with the plan of Mr. Hume. He might have made a more encouraging point than he has thought fit to do of the great and growing export of cereals, especially of wheat, for the European market. It may be that he had before his eyes the fear of Mr. Hyndman and the croakers of his school, who see "the life-blood of the great multitude ebbing away" because of twenty millions' worth of agricultural produce annually leaving the country, and this "without any direct return being made for it." We are reminded by this of the standing grievance of a certain school of Irish patriots, that millions of cattle, sheep, and pigs are carried off every year to feed the Saxon. Allowing for the exceptional circumstances of the late famine, which may be largely averted in years to come by schemes of irrigation and improved transport, there has been no such thing as a hopeless falling off in agricultural prosperity. The value of wheat exported has risen by steady steps of progress from 82,70,064 rupees in the years 1873-74, to 2,85,69,899 in 1877-78. To the many admirable qualities of the native cultivators our author's experience enables him to do justice. They well know the condition of the soil, and the seasons. They are unflinching in industry, cleanly in husbandry, and adepts in harvesting and storing grain. As for the absence of weeds, their wheat-fields would in this respect shame ninety-nine hundredths of those in Europe.

Taking in alphabetical order what may be called in comparison with agriculture the minor industries, but which in the aggregate are of vital importance to the wealth of India, Mr. James begins with the steady increase in the brewing of beer, chiefly for consumption by the army. In the Bengal presidency alone some 5,000 hogsheads of beer are required by the troops. The substitution of hill-beer, which we are assured the men find equally good, involves a direct saving. The risk of loss by climate is for the most part done away with, whilst the demand for hops brings a reflex advantage to the growers of Kent and Sussex. Already a complaint has sprung up that the profits of hill-breweries are enormous and unfair to the consumer, though the Murrie Company, the most flourishing of all, has never divided, according to Mr. James's figures, more than 10 per cent. Cacao, or cocoa, introduced into India from South America, is a thriving industry, the Trinidad variety being the most successful. Carpets, once the special trade of India as of all Oriental countries, have sadly fallen off in taste, owing to the influence of false and vulgar patterns from Europe. This industry is now carried on chiefly in gaols, a practice open to much question on grounds of economy and general policy. To those who pin their faith to Liebig's famous dictum, "Tell me what a country's consumption of sulphuric acid is, and I will tell you what her wealth is," there may be an omen of ill in the falling off in Indian chemicals. The exports of saltpetre declined in value from 464,974*l.* in 1874, to 379,002*l.* in 1878, a similar falling off being manifest in borax. A list of minor chemical products is appended by the author, but their quantity is not such as to call for statistical enumeration. The growth of

* *Indian Industries*. By A. G. F. Eliot James, Author of "A Guide to Indian Household Management," &c. London: Allen & Co. 1880.

chinchona has been attended of late years by a very important increase. The export of this valuable drug is not indeed likely to interfere at present with the interests of Peru, but the amount already grown is enough to meet largely the need of bark for local purposes, saving the Government some 12,000 rupees annually, and promising to add progressively to the health of the troops. A short but interesting sketch of the introduction of the chinchona plant into India from Peru is given by Mr. James. A far more important industry, that of coffee, has had very fluctuating fortunes. Neither in India nor in Ceylon does it seem able to hold its own against rival sources of supply, judging from the recent reports of the Ceylon Coffee Company (Limited) at home, and the falling off in Indian exports set down in our author's tables. The leaf disease and the ravages of the borer combine to keep down the yield. Much is expected from the introduction of the new Liberian coffee, with its large and hardy variety of berry; but it must be doubted whether the growth will be found once more capable of such a marked rise as that which it attained on the equalization of the duties with those on the West Indian products several years ago.

On the subject of cotton there is nothing very new to be said. Mr. James gives a rapid outline of the history of the plant and its manufacture, and dwells briefly but with point upon the drawbacks which check the competition of Indian staples with the produce of America and other cotton-growing districts. In spite of diminishing exports of the raw material, he is hopeful of a revival of the industry by means of better seed, ample capital, improved machinery, and more intelligent care. With regard to the cotton manufacture, he supplies facts and figures which make this one of the most instructive portions of his book. The value of cotton twist and piece goods having more than doubled between 1873-4 and 1877-8 goes far to explain the alarm which has spread of late among British manufacturers. To what extent the remission of the import duties upon cotton goods, under the regulation of 1878, is likely to serve the interests of Manchester, for the sake of which a grievous wound was inflicted upon the fiscal system and the struggling manufacturers of India, is a matter of much doubt. The facts adduced by Mr. James go far to justify his belief that Manchester will fail, after all, to contend with the Indian mills in respect to the precise class of goods they are in the habit of turning out, however the Indian market may be flooded with the new class of shirtings from Manchester. The cotton mills of Bombay, he points out, have made since the date of their first starting in 1854 very rapid progress. No less than forty-one spinning and weaving mills are now at work in that Presidency, while in Calcutta there are three, in Madras two, at Cawnpore two, at Nagpore one, in all India fifty-three, giving work to 10,533 looms and 1,289,706 spindles. These figures would not, perhaps, be much thought of at Manchester or Oldham, but they show a very fair beginning. Anyhow, as our author fairly argues, it is quite time that a wider and less selfish policy should take the place of that which has so long kept back our great Eastern dependency in the path of progress. "If Indian interests and English interests once come to be considered identical and therefore inseparable, then trade jealousy, which is the real barrier between the two countries, will be laid low, and Lord Metcalfe's prophecy that India would be lost upon the floor of the House of Commons—i.e. sacrificed to party interests—will stand no chance of fulfilment." This indeed may be taken as the key-note of Mr. James's work throughout. The same moral is illustrated and enforced in the case of each successive industry that makes up his survey. It has been to British, not Indian, interests that our policy has been addressed. India has been treated as a mere forcing-house for raw produce, cotton, rice, seeds, and jute, Manchester claiming in return the monopoly of dressing the natives in long cloth. We have not space to go in adequate detail into the later portions of Mr. James's work. The prospects indicated by many of the principal industries are chequered, progress in some being set against decline in others. In seeds the export trade has advanced from 3,850,000*l.* in 1857 to 13,560,000*l.* in 1877, something near 274 per cent. Seed-growing, however, is highly exhaustive of the soil, and must be kept up by copious manuring and careful rotation of crops. The exports of both raw and manufactured silk have fallen off considerably of late years. Spices, on the whole, show an equal decline, although in some branches of the trade, as in betel, largely exported to China, and for the cardamoms, formerly known as grains of paradise, there is an increasing demand. Of sugar India is the original home, from the Sanscrit *sarkarā* having come the Persian name *shakar* and *shakkar*, the Arabic *sokkar*, the Latin *saccharum*, and later European names. Mr. James traces briefly the history of this important industry, with an estimate of the probable effects of recent legislation upon its development in India. On the whole, he is disposed to look forward to a good time coming for Indian sugar. In ten, despite the unhappy season of 1879, in which Assam and Bengal shared to the full the damps and darkness of the home country, the advance in exports has been highly gratifying, and the Indian tobacco trade has as largely developed within the last few years. A clear view of the fluctuations of every branch of industry may be had at a glance from the table of quantities and value, as far as can be ascertained, of the chief articles of Indian produce and manufacture exported from British India in the three years ending March 31st, 1876-78, appended from Mr. O'Connor's *Review of the Trade of British India for the Official Year 1877-78*, the most authentic and complete of all the official papers relating to our Eastern trade.

FRENCH LITERATURE.

A VERY interesting volume of correspondence (1), edited by M. Troubat, shows Sainte-Beuve in his best, and perhaps also his truest, light. The letters which fill this volume cover the whole period of the critic's life, from his schoolboy days onwards, and the impression derived from so large a number of documents, extending over more than half a century, and addressed to hundreds of different persons under the widest possible differences of circumstance, can hardly be erroneous. Those letters which are written to his earliest friend, the Abbé Barbe, are particularly interesting, and the manner in which the writer strives, without disguising his own change of ideas and convictions, to respect his friend's principles, is peculiarly noteworthy. Very remarkable, too, from the point of view of literary history, are the pains which Sainte-Beuve, unlike almost all his compatriots, takes to be accurate in matters of English orthography. Even M. Louis Blanc, after a ten years' residence in England, murders the names which he must have had before him a hundred times in print, in the most barbarous manner. When Sainte-Beuve has occasion to mention the sanctuary of English Government, he carefully writes to an English friend to know whether it is "Dowing" Street or "Downing" Street, and when he wishes to allude to an essay of Charles Lamb's, he asks the same friend to come and call on him that he may compare notes and be quite sure that he has caught the spirit of his author. In short, no small portion of this book is simply an extended illustration of a well-known saying about genius and the capacity for taking pains. Yet another class of documents of an attractive kind is the class of answers to literary correspondents. These are, as a rule, occupied with the giving (or the avoidance of giving) gratuitous criticisms on the works which these correspondents have sent him. The patience with which he whose time was his bread, and who always had plenty to do with it, seems to have undertaken the drudgery of proof reading, and the very thankless task of giving advice, is surprising. His private criticisms, too, are equally free from ill-tempered asperity, and from the much more usual fault of insincere praise, given with the object of getting rid of a troublesome task with the least possible trouble. Here and there too are scattered judgments of the greatest value. A letter written so long ago as 1835 on the subject of Victor Hugo will make the *Hugobdres* very angry; but contains a verdict in which all reasonable persons who are able to keep the personality of a writer and their estimate of it apart from the question of his literary value will concur. Altogether the volume must be pronounced not only one of unusual interest in itself, but one which goes far to compensate the memory of the writer for some late exposures which were at least as unfair as they were damaging.

M. du Boys speaks (2) of having gathered new proofs as to the origins of the "work of darkness," as he calls the transformation of the Church of England under Henry VIII. It does not, however, appear that the novelty is a novelty, except to French readers. M. du Boys seems to have industriously read the State Papers calendared by Messrs. Bergenroth, Brewer, and Rawdon Brown, which for a Frenchman is no doubt something of a feat. He seems also to have an open and inquiring mind, imbued, however, with a considerable tinge of simplicity, as will be obvious from the fact that his main complaint of Henry and of the Anglican Church generally is the violence done by them to liberty of conscience. He expresses this in an elaborate dedication to Cardinal Newman, and the Cardinal's reply is beyond all question the thing most interesting to Englishmen in the book. A more admirable economy has very rarely been displayed by any master. It should be mentioned that M. du Boys is dreadfully afraid of a great anti-Christian or anti-Catholic Empire with persecutions of the Neronian kind. This is how the Cardinal accepts his dedication:—"I thank you for the compliment you pay me in proposing to dedicate to me your work on Catherine of Aragon. Certainly, as you say, the Anglican Church became the established religion by the application of tyrannical force. I trust that now there are very few of its members who wish to use such means of upholding it, or would profess or act upon the principles of Cæsarism." There certainly is no loyal Anglican who will refuse to endorse this at the present day. Perhaps it should be added that M. du Boys is much comforted by the fact that on the 27th of February, 1844, the Cambridge Union affirmed a motion regretting the dissolution of the monasteries.

Somewhat less unctuousness of style would have made M. de Baillon's sketch of Mme. de Montmorency (3) more readable, but even as it is it can be read. The heroine, Marie Orsini, or Des Ursins, wife of the unlucky Montmorency, who paid the usual forfeit for trusting to the rottenest of all reeds, Gaston of Orleans, has a really great reputation for her misfortunes and her piety. Historically she ranks with other victims of Richelieu's ruthlessness, if necessary, resolve to bind together the jarring elements of feudal France, and she has even something of a place in literary story by virtue of the protection extended by her husband and herself to Théophile de Viau and to Mairet. These claims to remembrance, together with the odour of sanctity in which she expired, perhaps give her a fair claim to a biography, and it would probably be unfair to quarrel with M. de Baillon for having written the life of a saint in the usual dialect of hagiology.

(1) *Nouvelle correspondance de Sainte-Beuve*. Paris: Calmann Lévy.

(2) *Catherine d'Aragon*. Par Albert du Boys. Paris: Victor Palmé.

(3) *Madame de Montmorency*. Par le comte de Baillon. Paris: Didier.

M. Alphonse Karr's later publications may be described as ever nearer approximations of the ideal treatise *de omnibus rebus*, &c. He disclaims, with almost unnecessary modesty, the invention or the attribution to his own work of the somewhat pretentious title under which the volume before us (4) and its component parts in times past have appeared. As, however, it is in reality devoted for the most part to speculations of a practical kind, there is no reason to quarrel with its name. Of course there must be a difference of opinion as to the goodness or badness of the sense contained in M. Karr's suggestions on subjects so various as modern feminine dress, the merits of universal suffrage, the importance of rewarding those who throttle mad dogs, the best method of disposing of the dead, the value of grasshoppers, divorce, the Income-tax, &c. It must also be confessed that M. Karr is by no means so amusing when he is discussing such subjects as when he is retailing the literary anecdotes he has amassed in his long life, or describing his personal adventures at Sainte-Adresse or at Nice. Everybody, however, cannot be expected to be amusing at all times and in all places. If average newspaper work contained as much, we do not say *bon sens*, but good writing, as do these "grains," the readers of newspapers would assuredly have little to complain of.

The eighth volume of M. Louis Blanc's reprinted English letters (5) is concerned with the year 1868, and busies itself with Fenianism, with the Irish Church, and, above all, with the elections of that year, and the change of Ministry. The volume seems to us, though perhaps this may be fancy, to be distinguished beyond its fellows by the ruthless mangling of proper names, and by the evidence it contains of its author's inability really to understand the events that were passing before his eyes, or indeed to do anything but to look at them through a pair of carefully prepared spectacles. Not merely at this distance of time, but after the most careful remembrance of the facts at the time of writing, his estimate of the political importance of J. S. Mill strikes us as a singular instance of this.

It is perhaps something of a sign of the times that an Academician should have thought it worth his while to put a collection of popular tales (6) into literary language for the benefit of all and sundry. Severe "folk-lore" will perhaps be wroth with M. Xavier Marmier for adulterating their treasures; but, if so, they will be wroth without cause. M. Marmier, indeed, cannot be said to have actually improved the myths, like his predecessors Perrault and Hamilton, while his preface bears witness to a somewhat incautious swallowing whole of the atmospheric and meteorological theories; but any telling of the stories which have delighted so many generations of men all over the face of the earth must be welcome. M. Marmier has been careful, as far as possible, not to take the best known stories—those of England, or France, or Germany—but to explore the treasures of Slav, Scandinavian, and Eastern mythology, at which of late years so many hands have been working. We can hardly imagine a better reading-book for very young children—and it need not be said that the study of French can hardly be begun too young—than this book, which unites at once fascination of subject, strict propriety of treatment, and the mastery of classical French, which, to do them justice, the forty geese that guard the capitol—as a goose who was not admitted to guard the capitol called them—rarely fail to display.

A very great interest is now felt in France in the reorganization of the higher education, and the issue of a reprint (7), under the editorship of M. Scherer, of the essays of the late M. Bersot on the subject is a proof of that interest. As Principal of the Ecole Normale Supérieure, M. Bersot had an official position in reference to the question, but this official position by no means exercised upon him the benumbing effect which it is sometimes thought to have. Indeed, M. Bersot may be said to have been a decided Radical in educational matters. Many of the papers here reprinted are of old date, and carry us back to the early days of the Empire. But in one which is no older than last summer the retention of Latin composition among the subjects for the Bachelor's degree—a question since, if we mistake not, decided by M. Jules Ferry in the innovating sense—is vehemently attacked. M. Bersot, like a good many of his compeers in England, was also a violent foe of examinations, and seems, on the whole, to have been inspired by much of what is called the modern spirit. A paper on MM. Demogeot's and Montucci's well-known Report on English Grammar-schools does not impress us with the idea that he was well acquainted with the comparative history of his subject. He seems to know nothing of English education except from the book he is reviewing, and to be by no means certain of the distinction between "school" and "college."

Few volumes of travels seem to have been recently published and of those before us one is the record of a somewhat ordinary tour, another a reprint of a book first printed a quarter of a century ago, and the third a volume of sketches rather of literary than of geographical or adventurous interest. M. Cotteau (8) has told the story of his two journeyings—the first to the Philadelphia Exhibition and North America, the second round the coasts of the Southern continent in the Pacific Steamship Company's steamers—

in a sufficiently fluent and interesting manner. His ground is, of course, pretty well-beaten ground; but he justly observes that his own countrymen have less to do with beating it than the inhabitants of almost any other European country. A man who has been round the world is still something of a wonder in France. M. Guérin's book on Rhodes (9) was the best book that had appeared on the subject in the last year of the Crimean war, and it has not been superseded since. As for *Histoires de voyage* (10), the author of *Les iambes*, if he has not in his long life quite fulfilled the promise of that remarkable book, can write nothing that is not worth reading as a piece of French. The present volume is a mixture of narrative and description, and has the additional attraction of being unambitiously, but very fairly, illustrated.

M. Alfred Fouillée has written a stout volume (11) on sociology which contains a good deal of criticism of his predecessors. The principal idea of his book seems to be a comparison of the two main theories of society, one of which takes it to be a voluntary coalition for a definite purpose, the other a result of evolution like any other organism. M. Caro's prize essay on Goethe (12) adds another to the author's already respectable list of philosophical works. The examination, as usual with M. Caro, is careful and in the main sober enough. An appendix contains some *pièces* in the shape of translations of detached passages of Goethe's directly philosophical works. These being, on the whole, much less known than the purely literary writings of the author of *Faust*, M. Caro's idea of presenting them to his readers was not unhappy. M. Cantacuzène (13) has followed the example of several other translators in presenting to French readers certain of the thoughts and sayings of Schopenhauer. At first sight that driest, in the wine sense, of all philosophers might not be thought likely to hit the French taste. But the time has gone by for offhand judgments of this kind on national tastes and characteristics. The translation is good, and the virtue of the original survives very fairly in the version.

M. Léon Danicourt (14) is a shorthand writer in the Chamber of Deputies, an office of more importance in the country of official reports than here. Apparently M. Danicourt has a soul above the mere reproduction of others' speeches, and he has determined to discuss questions of *haute politique* for himself. His work is not ambitious in scale, and this is perhaps the most that can be said for it. His views are neither extravagant nor destitute of common sense, but they are not very novel or very forcibly put.

It may be laid down without fear of contradiction that in preparing for examination nothing is so useful as an ample selection of test examination papers. M. Laurent's little book (15) ought therefore to have plenty of customers. But we wish the answers had been left out.

M. Dufay in *La légende du Christ* (16), M. Wilfrid de Fonvielle in *Les miracles devant la science* (17), hunt very old trails without displaying any particular aptitude in sportsmanship. It is interesting to know that M. de Fonvielle does not wish to stir anybody up against the clergy. He knows no enemy of France except the people, "dont la morale se résume dans les mots la force prime le droit." We do not quite see the connexion of the unfortunate Germans with the question whether Noah could or could not see in the Ark (for by such venerable engines does M. de Fonvielle conduct his assault upon supernatural religion). But perhaps the author does.

M. Sayous's pamphlet (18) is an interesting discussion of a matter of some historical importance. It deals incidentally with some of the curious Judæo-Arabian sects of heretics, who undoubtedly had a considerable formative influence on Islamism.

A short tract on electoral reform in France (19) may deserve mention. The author proceeds on the principle that the preponderance of the majority and the representation of the minority are things to be concurrently aimed at.

The third number of the *Revue des arts décoratifs* (20) contains among other things a paper on Galland, the decorator, and a sample of his work, which is not particularly attractive, together with a representation of a beautiful pier-glass, designed by Prudhon, and another of some sixteenth-century woodwork rather resembling metal in delicacy and character of design.

Among the few novels of which we have to give account this month *Renée Mauperin* (21) deserves the first place, if not for intrinsic worth, at any rate for age and for a certain literary importance of the historical kind. It was one of the earliest books in which MM. de Goncourt set the example of naturalism, and considering

(9) *L'île de Rhodes*. Par V. Guérin. Seconde édition. Paris: Leroux. London: Trübner.

(10) *Histoires de voyage*. Par A. Barbier. Paris: Dentu.

(11) *La science sociale contemporaine*. Par E. Fouillée. Paris: Hachette.

(12) *La philosophie de Goethe*. Par E. Caro. Paris: Hachette.

(13) *Aphorismes sur la sagesse dans la vie*. Par A. Schopenhauer. Traduit par J. A. Cantacuzène. Paris: Germer-Baillière.

(14) *La patrie et la république*. Par Léon Danicourt. Paris: Germer-Baillière.

(15) *Questions and Answers on French Grammar*. By V. Laurent. London: Stanford.

(16) *La légende du Christ*. Par Henri Dufay. Paris: Dreyfous.

(17) *Les miracles devant la science*. Par W. de Fonvielle. Paris: Dentu.

(18) *Jésus Christ d'après Mahomet*. Par E. Sayous. Paris: Leroux. Leipzig: Schulze.

(19) *L'équité électorale*. Par E. Brelay. Paris: Guillaumin.

(20) *Revue des arts décoratifs*. No. 3. Paris: Quantin.

(21) *Renée Mauperin*. Par E. et J. de Goncourt. Nouvelle édition. Paris: Charpentier.

(4) *Grains de bon sens*. Par Alphonse Karr. Paris: Calmann Lévy.

(5) *Dix ans de l'histoire d'Angleterre*. Par Louis Blanc. Tome 8. Paris: Calmann Lévy.

(6) *Contes populaires de différents pays*. Par X. Marmier. Paris: Hachette.

(7) *Questions d'enseignement*. Par E. Bersot. Paris: Hachette.

(8) *Promenades dans les deux Amériques, 1876-1877*. Par E. Cotteau. Paris: Charpentier.

the remarkable fruits which the tree has since borne, the seed may have a certain interest. We cannot, however, say that *Renée Maupérin* seems to us intrinsically to deserve republication in the charming little collection known as the *Petite Bibliothèque Charpentier*. Less audacious than *Germinie Lacerteux*, it is also less powerful. Mme. Henry Gréville's mixture of humour and pathos is very well illustrated in *L'héritage de Xénie* (22). The dialogue is especially good, and many of the speeches of the heroine and her mother are possessed of a pleasant crispness which no French novelist, save Mme. Gréville, and now and then M. Cherbuliez, knows how to give. The plot is perhaps a little spoilt by French mother-worship. *Les demi-mariages* (23) is intended to illustrate the evil effects of the granting of an unlimited faculty of divorce, and it is more effective than most novels with a purpose. *Le remords du docteur* (24) is a rather well-put-together story, involving a curious question of casuistry. A doctor on one occasion saves a life, thereby causing—as he knew at the time he should cause—a great deal of annoyance to some very excellent people. Afterwards he, half deliberately, neglects to save another life, thereby making some excellent people very happy. *Quaritur*, for which act ought he to feel remorse? Lastly, *Le château de Castelloubou* (25) is a fair, but rather spun-out, tale of *diablerie*. Some tourists pass the night in a haunted château, and the evil spirits revenge themselves on their disturbers tragically and ingeniously enough.

- (22) *L'héritage de Xénie*. Par Henry Gréville. Paris: Plon.
 (23) *Les demi-mariages*. Par Paul Perret. Paris: Plon.
 (24) *Le remords du docteur*. Par Georges Vautier. Paris: Ghio.
 (25) *Le château de Castelloubou*. Par E. Couste. Paris: Ollendorff.

NOTICE.

We beg leave to state that we decline to return rejected Communications; and to this rule we can make no exception.

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THE LONDON HOSPITAL and MEDICAL COLLEGE, Mile-end, E.—The SESSION 1880–81 will commence on Friday, October 1, 1880. Four Entrance Scholarships, value £50, £40, £30 and £20, will be offered for Competition at the end of September to new Students. Entries on or before September 20. Fees for Lectures and Hospital Practice, 90 Guineas in one payment, or 100 Guineas in three instalments. All Resident and other Hospital Appointments are free. The Resident Appointments consist of Five House-Physicians, Four House-Surgeons, One Accoucheur, and Two Midwives. Pupils also reside in the Hospital. Special entries may be made for Medical and Surgical Practice. The London Hospital is now in direct communication by rail and tram with all parts of the Metropolis. MUNRO SCOTT, Warden.

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The SESSION of the FACULTY of MEDICINE will begin on Monday, October 4. The SESSION of the FACULTIES of ARTS and LAWS, and of SCIENCE, will begin on October 5. Instruction is provided for Women in all subjects taught in the Faculties of Arts and Laws and of Science. Prospectuses, and Copies of the Regulations relating to the Entrance and other Exhibitions, Scholarships, &c. (value about £2,000), may be obtained from the College, Gower Street, W.C. The Examinations for the Entrance Exhibitions will be held on September 28 and 29. The SCHOOL for BOYS will RE-OPEN on September 21. The College is close to the Gower Street Station of the Metropolitan Railway. TALFOURD ELY, M.A., Secretary.

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